The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 27, 1891.

The Week.

THE resolution adopted by the Republicans of Pennsylvania on the silver question is a curiosity; but since all of our silver legislation is composed of separate curiosities, it is not to be regarded with special wonder. First, the resolution endorses bimetallism without defining that term. There are several kinds of bimetallism talked of by its votaries, while some people regard it as a myth altogether and deny the existence of the thing in actual practice in any part of the world. It will be seen presently that the kind of bimetallism which the followers of Quay favor is different from any other kind ever heard of. Next, they "endorse the action of the Fifty-first Congress in providing for the purchase and coinage of all the silver produced from American mines." No such bill has been passed by Congress, but, on the contrary, a bill providing for the purchase (not necessarily the coinage) of 4,500,000 ounces of silver per month, wherever produced. Next, they recommend "such tariff duties as will protect our country and its currency from the debasement which will surely follow if this nation is made the dumping-ground for all the silver in the world." Now every kind of bimetallism that was ever heard of before provides for the unlimited coinage of the two metals. In fact, that is what bimetallism means. The phrase "dumping-ground," as applied to either silver or gold, implies that one or the other metal is to be rejected in whole or in part. In the theory of bimetallism, rejecting a part is the same as rejecting the whole. Probably Mr. Quay's convention did not understand the subject at all, but believed that Protection would solve every problem in finance, like the quack doctor who threw all his patients into fits because he could always cure fits.

It is not easy to adopt a particular portion of sound economic doctrine without being led to admit the rest. There is a certain unity and symmetry in the body of truth established in this department of knowledge, that exerts a steadily persuasive influence upon a mind once turned in the right direction. Thus the New York *Tribune*, confiding in the wisdom of President Harrison, heartily applauds his declaration that the dollars coined or stamped by the general Government ought to be of equal value, and concurs in the assertion that "the poorer dollar will do its first errand in paying some poor laborer for his work." But in its natural delight at being able to maintain true doctrine after the fatigue of a long course of protectionist sophistry, the *Tribune* is carried to unexpected lengths, and commits itself to a proposition that is fatal to the theory of protection. The price obtainable for the farmers' crops, it declares, "depends upon the price which foreign countries will pay for the great surplus to be exported." This is a point which the free-traders have always made much of, and it marks an important advance in the controversy when the protectionists are brought to admit that the price of our exports is fixed in the foreign markets. The consequences of this agreement of both parties to the controversy are very obvious, and the farmer will now be far better able than before to see the precise operation of the tariff. The price of what he sells is what foreign countries will pay, the *Tribune* tells him; but how about the price of what he buys? Altogether, this admission by the protectionists is a long step in advance, and, taken in connection with their delight in reciprocity, is a most hopeful indication as to the future.

Major McKinley was wise as a serpent when he gave the first place in his first campaign speech to the silver question. He was not so wise a few months earlier when he spoke at Toledo. We can but approve of the greater part of his last deliverance, and especially of his endorsement of the position of ex-President Cleveland. We put in parallel columns what he said on this subject at Toledo on February 12, of the present year, and what he said at Niles on Saturday last:

MAJ. M'KINLEY AT TOLEDO, O., FEB. 12, 1891.

During all of his [Cleveland's] years at the head of the Government he was dishonoring one of our precious metals, one of our own great products, discrediting silver and enhancing the price of gold. He endeavored even before his inauguration to office to stop the coinage of silver dollars, and afterwards, and to the end of his Administration, persistently used his power to that end. He was determined to contract the circulating medium and demonetize one of the coins of commerce, limit the volume of money among the people, make money scarce, and therefore dear. He would have increased the value of money and diminished the value of everything else—money the master, everything else the servant.

MAJ. M'KINLEY AT NILES, O., AUG. 23, 1891.

The danger of free and unlimited coinage has been pointed out over and over again by leading statesmen of both parties. The position of leading Republicans upon this question is so well known that I need not pause to quote from them. Let me call your attention to what the leaders of the Democratic party who are chief in its counsels say. No one has spoken with greater ability on the Democratic side than the ex-President of the United States, the Hon. Grover Cleveland. His letter written but a few months ago, taken in connection with his former utterances upon this subject, shows that nothing could be more disastrous, in his judgment, to the business interests of the country and to the best welfare of all the people, than the free and unlimited coinage of silver. Let me read you, etc.

There is something almost ludicrous in the joy over the abundant harvest in this country manifested by the protectionist newspapers. They have been watching the operation of the McKinley Act in a cold sweat of apprehension, and insisting that it would not check importations and was not meant to, that it would not raise prices, but lower them; and dwelling with especial emphasis upon the free-trade clauses of the measure. All the time they were desperately afraid that the result would be a deficit in the Treasury, which would infallibly arouse public indignation, while their silver legislation was forcing gold out of currency and out of the country. The prospect of an enormous surplus of agricultural produce for export in connection with a strong foreign demand is therefore particularly welcome to them. This surplus President Harrison seems to estimate at about $1,000,000,000, which would just pay for our last Congress, and the bounty of nature will thus atone for the folly of the party in control of the Government. It is a great piece of good fortune for the country, as it will enable us to import goods even under almost prohibitory duties, and perhaps will draw back our gold. It will be tiresome to hear the abundance of the harvest and the consequent activity of trade attributed to the tariff, but we shall hear little else from the protectionist organs during the next year.

Mr. William E. Bear, the English statistician, writes to *Bradstreet's* that later information leads him to mark up the European deficiency of wheat from 281,000,000 bushels (his first figures) to 320,000,000 bushels. This change in his estimate is due to later advices from Russia, and to unfavorable weather in western Europe, including England, since his last report was made. Upon this revised estimate the editor of *Bradstreet's* counts up the sources of supply for this deficiency as follows:

"North America, surplus, say, 190,000,000 bushels, which now looks to be full, and to mean holding reserves down to the minimum; southeastern Europe (exclusive of Russia, which is, according to the writer of the letter quoted above, not regarded as a wheat exporter of moment) 45,000,000 bushels; India 26,000,000 bushels, Australia and New Zealand 8,000,000 bushels, South America 5,000,000 bushels, and exports from elsewhere, say, 14,000,000 bushels; in all, about 288,000,000 bushels. This points to a nominal deficiency of 32,000,000 bushels, with probable export totals as high as they well can be, and with reserves drawn down the world over."

The opinion here quoted, that Russia is not to be regarded as a wheat exporter of moment is, however, offset by Beerbohm's estimate of a probable export of 64,000,000 bushels. This discrepancy between the highest authorities is sufficient to account for the nervousness of the American markets, which have been characterized during the week by rapid fluctuations over a narrow range of prices. Much exhortation has been bestowed upon the speculators not to put up the price so high as to check exports. This excellent advice will probably be heeded by the speculators, because they cannot do it if they would. If exports were stopped, the incoming rush would soon fill the warehouses, glut the market, and put down the price, to the confusion and heavy loss of the daring spirits who should seek to corner

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wheat. At the same time, it is as well to acknowledge that they would all do it if they could, and that exhortations to them to forbear would be considered as mummery, like the prohibition of miracles by the holy coat of Treves.

We endeavor to keep the run of all the currency schemes that find expression in the councils of the Farmers' Alliance or elsewhere. A new one has been brought forward by one Alfred B. Westrup, editor of an Alliance newspaper. He proposes to issue money on the security of movable property such as horses, cattle, wheat, pork, cotton, etc., and to do this without asking any favors of the Government. Mr. Westrup holds that, if you make your money *good*, it will go without any legal-tender laws to help it along. It is really wonderful that this idea has not occurred to the Alliance leaders before. It bears a suspicious resemblance to the Scotch banking system, and that fact will probably suffice to secure its rejection upon careful scrutiny by the Alliance committeemen. Good banking consists in the issue of money on the security of property that is actually circulating in the community between producer and consumer. The only restrictions that the Government can profitably or properly impose upon it are such as aim to secure the public against bad working of the system, against blundering and rascality in the administration of the affairs of the banks. As Mr. Westrup desires to have his new currency so good that it will not need any law of legal tender to sustain it, he will no doubt desire the best security for his circulating notes. Government bonds are the best security now; but since these are disappearing it will be necessary to find some substitute for them. The American Bankers' Association, we feel sure, will gladly avail themselves of any suggestions on this point that any Alliance man may offer. It is rather depressing to learn that Mr. Westrup's ideas were coldly received at a meeting of the Alliance held in Topeka on the evening of the 18th inst. The objection raised against it, says a special telegram from the Kansas capital, was "its non-recognition of the powers of the Government." By endorsing the National Bank Act as it stands, this defect would be remedied.

Col. W. W. Dudley, following closely in the footsteps of Messrs. Quay and Dorsey, is out for Blaine as the Republican candidate in 1892. "The people demand Blaine," he says; "they are enthusiastic for him," but "they do not warm up to Harrison in any such way." If Blaine is the candidate, Dudley does not think the campaign will be fought on the lines of 1884, because—

> "All that was brought up against Blaine then has been condoned. He has given the country an idea, as Secretary of State, of his diplomacy, ability, patriotism, and statesmanship. He is much the largest American intellectually to-day. He would make a splendid President. He would look well after the interests of the whole country. If it seemed to him that protection stood between the country and its best interests, he would not hesitate to attack it."

Mr. Blaine will hardly thank Dudley for his method of disposing of the charges of 1884. If they have been "condoned," then the truth of them has been admitted, and the verdict of the country, according to Dudley, is: "Guilty, but as you have given the country an idea, we won't say anything more about it." There can be no question that Quay, Dorsey, and Dudley are the right kind of leaders for a campaign of a candidate with this peculiar moral equipment.

In speculating upon the Presidential election of 1892, Republican newspapers throughout the country always set down New Hampshire as a sure Republican State. But "Bill" Chandler does not take this view. In his latest article under his signature in his Concord *Monitor*, the Senator frankly confesses that the prospect is dubious. He points out that last year the Republican candidate for Governor had only 93 more votes out of 86,228 than the Democratic. He declares that "Jones and Sinclair [the chief managers of the Democratic party] have at their back the rum power, the power of $100,000,000 invested in the Boston and Maine and Concord and Montreal Railroads, and unlimited corruption money. They have continuously in their pay over 200 of the most active Republicans in the State, beginning with the higher Republican lawyers and officials, and descending to the lowest town and ward politicians; while no Republican leaders or interests have in their like employment a single Democrat. Jones and Sinclair will control our nominations for Governor, Councillors, and members of the Legislature. They will select the Chairman of our State Committee, and will know all the plans, and the secrets, if there be any, of our canvass." Such being the outlook, Chandler asks himself, "Can the Republican party successfully encounter these odds in 1892?" and answers, "It is a question of the gravest doubt." As nobody understands New Hampshire politics better than this authority, it would seem that the State ought hereafter to be put in the "doubtful column."

A curious phase of political movements in this State at present is the openness with which the party bosses, Hill and Platt, go about the business of arranging the tickets in advance of the meeting of the conventions. It has for many years been the custom to arrange the tickets in this way, but heretofore there has been some secrecy preserved in the work. This year neither side makes much effort at concealment. Gov. Hill allowed it to be known months ago that he had selected his candidates for Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and other offices, and that the work of the Convention would be entirely perfunctory, the delegates assembling merely to ratify the Governor's choice. Mr. Platt has been equally frank, and has been arranging the names on the Republican ticket with almost unrestricted publicity for several weeks past. He has, in fact, been testing the public taste in the matter by submitting to it several different combinations. Some of these have visible quantities of reform flavoring, others have imperceptible. The instructive feature of Mr. Platt's proceedings has been the general agreement that he was the absolute and controlling force in the matter, and was to decide upon the ticket which the Convention was finally to nominate. Considering that he is a private citizen, engaged in the express business, his autocratic power over his party is one of the most striking developments of modern politics.

Mr. David A. Wells has written a long and very thorough review of the wool tariff and its consequences for the *World*. Its value consists in grouping together all the facts that have been brought out since the McKinley Bill went into operation as a connected whole, showing how the new tariff, with its outrageous and perplexing regulations, has oppressed the manufacturers without the slightest help or benefit to the wool-grower. Among other resulting consequences of the duty on wool particularly mentioned, is the enormous increase in the importation and use of shoddy as a substitute for wool. This, however, is not a peculiar result of the McKinley Bill, but is common to all the tariffs we have had since 1867. Under the operation of the wool tariff of 1867 the importation of shoddy and waste rose from 512,000 pounds in 1870 to 8,662,000 in 1889, an increase of over 1,600 per cent. in nineteen years. But most of our shoddy is of domestic production. "According to the census of 1880," says Mr. Wells, "41 per cent. of the material that constituted the so-called woollen fabrics of the country was not wool." The effect of the substitution of shoddy and cotton in the manufacture of clothing upon the health of the people, Mr. Wells very properly considers highly deleterious in our changeable climate.

The McKinley tariff put a duty ranging from 350 to 1,400 per cent. on pearl buttons. The object of this imposition was not so much to promote the pearl-button industry here as to compel people to buy ivory, bone, and horn buttons, which are made here. In order that the latter should not be imported, the duty on those articles was doubled. It appears that the manufacturers of pearl buttons, for there were a few such before the McKinley Bill passed, imported a lot of contract laborers from Bohemia to work at the pauper wages of $4 per week. These wretched creatures, having been thrown out of employment at home by McKinley, thought that they might as well starve in America as starve there. So they accepted the offer made to them. But at this juncture the authorities of the Auburn Prison, being at their wits' end to find employment for the convicts, have put

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them at work on pearl buttons, thus competing with the imported paupers. These facts were set forth in a recent number of the *Dry Goods Economist*, which said further:

"In the case of the reported importation of laborers under contract, it is to be hoped that, if the charge be sustained, the culprits will be heavily fined, whatever their standing, commercially or otherwise, may be, as it is of vital importance to the community that the laws relating to labor be enforced."

It is not unnatural for those who have been impressed with the beauty of the scenery of Vermont, and who saw the fine character of the people gathered last week at Bennington from the farms of that State, to wonder why its population shows no increase. There are many reasons for this, but perhaps one of the most potent is not sufficiently considered. It is the peculiarly inequitable system of taxation, which makes it practically impossible for men of wealth to make their homes in the State, unless they are willing to commit what the law regards as perjury. The burden of taxation is in itself light, but, owing to the practice of assessing real estate at perhaps not more than a third or a fourth of what it is worth, while personal property, especially if intangible, must be returned at its full value, together with the circumstance that personal property constitutes a comparatively small part of the wealth of the State, the rate of taxation is extremely high. In fact, a man whose wealth was invested in bonds bearing a low rate of interest would find that his income was practically confiscated. We have in mind the case of a gentleman who had made his home in the State from choice, and who had become much attached to it, but who was so unfortunate as to become possessed of a considerable fortune, all of which was invested otherwise than in real estate. As the rate of taxation in the place of his residence was 3 or 4 per cent., he found himself under the necessity either of paying four-fifths of his income in taxes, or of making an evasive return of his property, or of leaving the State. Very reluctantly he chose the latter alternative, and thus he was deprived of a pleasant home while the State was deprived of a good citizen and lost revenue instead of gaining it. If the people of Vermont would really like to see families of wealth and culture making homes for themselves in their beautiful State, they should revise their inhospitable and unjust code of taxation.

A case has recently gone from the Massachusetts courts to the Supreme Court of the United States that raises a curious question. The county and town of Nantucket cover the same territory, so that it is impossible to be an inhabitant of one without being at the same time an inhabitant of the other. In 1888 it was discovered that the town treasurer, Brown, had been stealing from the town by means of forged vouchers, and at a town meeting, which was very largely attended, it was voted to prosecute him. Accordingly, at the next session of the Superior Court for the County of Nantucket, a grand jury drawn by the Selectmen at a town meeting called for that purpose brought in an indictment for forgery against Brown. The trial jury was drawn in the same way. Thereupon the defendant claimed that both the grand and trial juries were incompetent because of bias and interest, and that the draft by the Selectmen was illegal because of their interest in the matter. The importance of these objections lies in the fact that the defendant could have been indicted only in the county of Nantucket, so that, if the objections were sustained, no other prosecution could have been had. The objections, however, were overruled, upon the ground that neither the jurors nor the Selectmen had sufficient interest in the result to make them incompetent. The defendant then pleaded to the indictment and was convicted, but upon the trial his counsel discovered that some, if not all, of the members of both juries had been present at the meeting at which it was voted to proceed against Brown, and he thereupon filed a plea of exception to the jurisdiction upon the ground that the members of both juries were incompetent because of their having prejudged the case, alleging, also, that, under the circumstances, an impartial jury could not be obtained in Nantucket, and claiming the protection of the Constitutions of the State and of the United States. The plea was overruled by the Massachusetts Supreme Court upon grounds so technical that it is possible that the decision may be reversed, and in that case Brown will escape. In most cases where two political organizations are conterminous, it is a city and not a town that coincides with a county, and there is no personal participation by the possible jurors in proceedings against offenders except in the case of members of the grand jury; and it has been the tendency, we believe, generally to hold that their interest is insufficient to disqualify them from finding indictments against those who have defrauded the county or municipality. It is, however, quite desirable that the constitutional question should receive a final decision.

The growing dissatisfaction in Germany with the sugar bounty laws has at last led to their practical repeal. A law of May 31, regulating the inspection of beet-grown sugar and its domestic taxation, provides for the gradual lessening and final discontinuance of the drawback and bounty heretofore paid to exporters of refined sugar. The bounty is to cease altogether at the end of five years. The bounty laws have undoubtedly extended the area of beet culture. The sugar-producers have also been benefited at the expense of the rest of the community, for while they were getting their bounty out of the public treasury, the English were getting all the cheap sugar. The authorities have at last grown tired of taxing Germans for the sake of lowering the price of sugar in England. The curious question remains, how long it will be before the other Continental countries that copied German sugar legislation will admit, as Germany now does, that it is all a delusion and a snare. The German precedent was freely cited by our own bounty advocates in the last Congress, who have nothing but contempt for the example of "abroad," except when it is a bad example and they want to follow it. Now that it fails them, they will doubtless disown all foreign models, and fall back on their favorite thesis that the United States are privileged to defy all the established canons of taxation and finance.

A noteworthy convention of farmers and landed proprietors was held in Naples in the middle of July, for the purpose of considering the depressed condition of Italian agriculture. The southern provinces are the ones particularly suffering, and it was from them that the majority of the delegates came. There was a good deal of foolish talk, of the sort furnished in abundance in gatherings of agriculturists in our own land, mostly in regard to the feasibility of a Government "agrarian credit" to furnish capital to the tillers of the soil. In the complaints on account of unremunerative prices for farm products there was, too, a failure to recognize the effect of natural causes in cheapening what the farmer has to sell. But there was a very clear and sound conviction on all hands that the one thing which was doing Italian agriculture to death was the Italian tariff. In fact, the statistics of Italian foreign trade, since the new tariff was put into force, are an unanswerable proof that the diminished demand for the oil and wine and silk which the Italian farmers have to sell, is directly due to the customs barriers raised against importations to pay for them. That the Convention was sure of this may be seen from the following resolution it passed: "The Congress shares the view expressed by the Society of Viticulturists at Rome, May 23, and petitions his Majesty's Government, in negotiating future commercial treaties, not to sacrifice the interests of agriculture to those of manufactures, and, above all, that a greater liberty and facility in the exportation of agricultural products be secured by *suitable reductions in our general tariff*." Two things stamp this resolution as remarkable. It makes no mention of any concessions to be obtained from France, or elsewhere, in return for the reductions desired, but urges them absolutely and for their own sake. Furthermore, it makes no exception of the duties supposed to protect the farmer—those on grain and rice. But the delegates must have known that those duties would not be spared in a general cutting down, and therefore they practically say that they are ready to give up duties nominally in their own favor if only they can get rid of the taxes meant to stimulate manufacturing. These last are the intolerable burden which the Italian farmers have had to bear, and they have finally found it out.

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POLITICS AND THE SILVER QUESTION.

PRESIDENT HARRISON'S Albany speech, in which he pledged himself to veto a free-coinage bill if one should be sent him, is evidently destined to produce a great effect in more than one direction. The first reflection of every reader was upon the assurance thus given that no free-coinage bill can become a law, for it is obvious that a two-thirds vote could not be obtained in the Senate for its passage over a Presidential veto. This is in itself a great gain for the country. Until Mr. Harrison spoke, there was room for doubt as to his action in case a free-coinage bill should reach him; and so long as this doubt remained, uncertainty as to the future must prevail throughout the business community. This uncertainty is now removed. Everybody knows that the silver craze can go no further at present, so far as legislation is concerned.

But the President's deliverance will, we think, accomplish more than this. It must inevitably do a great deal to arrest the silver craze itself. It is perfectly obvious that this craze has been largely the work of the politicians in both parties. Republican politicians in the West, and Democratic in the West and South, have been shouting for free coinage because they thought there was something to be made out of the issue for their respective parties. They do not care anything about the principle of free coinage. Their only concern about it is as an issue by which they can win votes.

Mr. Harrison's announcement that he will use the veto power, if he is given a chance, shows the Republican politicians in the West who have been demanding free coinage that they will simply dig their own graves if they keep up their shouting. Mr. Harrison is the head of the Republican party. He declares that he will veto a certain bill if it reaches him. The great majority of his party applaud this announcement of his purpose. The minority of the party can accomplish nothing practical in the way of legislation by continuing their agitation. Moreover, they cannot help their party in their own States, or their own standing in the party, by keeping up the cry for free coinage. They will simply array themselves against the overwhelming sentiment of their party, and will get nothing but abuse in return. In short, so far as free coinage in the Republican party is concerned, Mr. Harrison's deliverance shows that "there is nothing in it" for the party as a party, or for ambitious politicians as self-seekers; and that is all that was necessary to make them ready to drop it.

The effect of the speech will not be lost upon the Democrats. The situation for them is exceedingly simple: they cannot elect a President without carrying the State of New York; their only chance of carrying New York is on a sound-money platform. With a free-coinage plank in the Democratic platform, there would be no use in the party's making a canvass. The Republicans would be sure of the State, and so of the nation. The Albany *Argus*, which speaks with authority as a Democratic newspaper, said of this matter the other day:

> "The question of the free coinage of silver in the current acceptation of the words is one that cannot be debated in New York State. It takes a difference of opinion to make a debate, and there is absolutely no difference of opinion here on the subject. One would find about as many advocates of the sub-Treasury scheme in New York State as of the independent free coinage of silver, and a corporal's guard could not be mustered for either. With the exception of one member, or at the utmost two members, New York's Democratic delegation in Congress has always been united against it. If there is a newspaper in this State consistently supporting the nominees of the Democracy which favors free coinage, we do not know its name or it has not ventured to advance its opinion. The reason for this unanimity of sentiment in the party lies on the surface. New York is the great commercial State of the Union, and anything which injures her trade strikes hard the members of the party, who make up the mass of the business men of the State and of the frugal workingmen and women whose savings would be threatened by currency fluctuations."

Mr. Harrison's Albany declaration has been endorsed not less heartily by Democratic newspapers like the Albany *Argus* and Brooklyn *Eagle* than by Republican journals. Such a spectacle will not go unheeded by the Democrats of the South, where the silver craze has raged most violently. The most earnest free-coinage Democrats in South Carolina or Alabama will see that to press the acceptance of their views in the National Convention would be simply to assure the defeat of their party. They would not hasten in the slightest the advent of free coinage, for they would only insure the election of a Republican President pledged to oppose it, while they would continue in power a party committed to the Force Bill policy. Southern Democrats, therefore, like Western Republicans, will soon perceive that "there is nothing in free coinage for them," and will be equally ready to drop it. A national convention does not meet for the purpose of adopting a platform which is certain to give the other party a victory, especially when the Convention has an issue at hand on which it can hope to carry the country. It is consequently only a question of time when Democrats throughout the country will accept the opinion expressed by the Brooklyn *Eagle* when it said, apropos of the Albany speech: "Assured beforehand that Gen. Harrison would return an unlimited-coinage bill without his approval, the only effect of the passage of it over his veto by the great Democratic majority in the House would be to make the question of a sound currency the leading issue of the Presidential campaign, and thus rob the Democracy of the winning card which they now hold in the tariff-reform issue."

"The President," says Mr. Bryce in his 'American Commonwealth,' "has a position of immense dignity, an unrivalled platform from which to impress his ideas (if he has any) upon the people." There could be no more striking illustration of the truth of this observation than is afforded by the speech of Mr. Harrison at Albany on Tuesday week. The President had a great opportunity, and he improved it. Good citizens throughout the country, without respect to party, cannot be too hearty in their recognition of the great public service which he has rendered.

REPUBLICAN TACTICS IN PENNSYLVANIA.

THERE seems to be no doubt that, but for the interference of Mr. Blaine's friends, the President would have suffered a most humiliating slight at the hands of the Pennsylvania Republican Convention last week. Senators Quay and Cameron had been at work openly for several weeks past preparing to administer this slight. They are dissatisfied for various reasons with the President, and are anxious to show him their power. Nobody believes that they are sincere in their professions of devotion to Mr. Blaine as a Presidential candidate, the universal opinion in Pennsylvania and elsewhere being that they are using him as the most convenient and effective club with which to make warfare on the President. They reasoned that if they could get a plank into the Republican platform of Pennsylvania declaring Mr. Blaine to be the choice of the Republicans of that State for the Presidency, it would be nothing more nor less than public announcement that the Republicans of the most powerful Republican State in the Union were not in favor of the President's renomination.

It mattered little to them whether Mr. Blaine would like to be made use of in this manner, or whether such use would be beneficial to his Presidential prospects. If in getting rid of Harrison they got rid of Blaine too, this pair of experienced political speculators could easily find some other candidate. But Mr. Blaine and his friends were not slow to see what the effect of a Presidential nomination of him at this time would be. They saw that it would inevitably force him to do one of two things —either decline absolutely to be a candidate, or retire from the Cabinet. As he was not willing to take either step now, his only course was to prevent the nomination. Thus it came about that the resolution which had been prepared and printed, eulogizing the "brilliant Administration," the "superb diplomacy," and the "magnificent achievements" of the State Department, and expressing the hope that the "Republican National Convention of 1892 may place in unanimous nomination for the Presidency—which nomination we feel assured will be followed by a triumphant election—the Honorable James G. Blaine of Pennsylvania and Maine," was altered in committee at the instance of Mr. Blaine's friends, and the hope above quoted was made to give way to a reaffirmation of the "loyalty and devotion of the Republicans of Pennsylvania to her most distinguished son, the Hon. James G. Blaine."

It must be said that Mr. Blaine has come out of the struggle with all the honors that were to be won in it. He will not be compelled to take any notice of this expression of loyalty and devotion, and at the same time he has the best of reasons for believing that if his friends had not interfered, the resolution in its original form would have been adopted. The President, on the other

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hand, gets little comfort for himself. He has, to be sure, a resolution of approval, but so has Mr. Wanamaker; in neither case is it accompanied by anything resembling a Presidential nomination. Then, if the President reads the reports of the Convention's proceedings, or the comments of the Republican newspapers upon them, he will see that the sentiment of the Convention was overwhelmingly in favor of Mr. Blaine, and that no mention whatever is made of the existence of a sentiment in favor of Harrison's renomination. Even those journals which advocated the change in the Blaine resolution say it was done from motives of policy alone, there being no doubt whatever that Blaine is the first choice of Pennsylvania Republicans as the national candidate for 1892.

The disturbing question for Mr. Blaine and his friends is as to the purpose of Messrs. Quay and Cameron in taking Blaine up as their candidate now. That they meant harm to him in the resolution as first drawn seems to be conceded. It was designed to force his hand at a most inopportune moment. He has parried that move very skilfully, but he has not shaken their control of the Pennsylvania Machine. They are as certain now as they were before the Convention to control the delegation to the National Republican Convention, and any one who has followed the political careers of the two men will admit without discussion that they will use that control absolutely in their personal interest. The vote of the Pennsylvania delegation next year, as in the days of Cameron the elder, will be given to the candidate who will meet most fully the wants of Pennsylvania as represented by its political rulers. In other words, Quay and Cameron are moving for position next year, and a great many other "business Republicans" of the same type, including Elkins and Dorsey and our own Platt, are deeply immersed in the same occupation.

The one point in the situation which has been clear for some time, is, that many of these Republicans leaders are, for various reasons, doubtful about the wisdom of Harrison's renomination. They do not like him in the first place, and they have grave doubts about the possibility of his reëlection in the second place. At the same time they are not certain that they can do any better. They are not certain that Mr. Blaine will be either willing or able to run. Hence they are preparing now for emergencies, and are aiming to secure, first of all, a majority of the delegates in order to be in position to dictate the nomination when the time to make it arrives. Whether the President is to have it or not, they are determined that he shall depend upon them for his fate.

REVENUE UNDER THE NEW TARIFF.

THE McKinley Bill was made law in the profoundest ignorance of what its effect upon the public revenue would be. Various solemn guesses were made by various Congressmen, it is true. Thus, Senator Allison, on September 2, 1890, put the reduction to be caused by the bill at $33,500,000, though three weeks later he had arrived at a revised estimate, namely, "forty to forty-five millions." When the Finance Committee reported the bill to the Senate, it stated that, according to the House schedules, a reduction of $71,064,774 was estimated, while, on the basis of the Committee's proposals, it would amount to $60,599,343. The nice calculation down to the very dollar was certainly edifying. However, at the very last moment before the new tariff was put to final vote, after the customary playing foot-ball with it in Conference Committee, Senator Aldrich was driven by Senator Gorman's nagging to give a last estimate. His figures were "forty-two to forty-three millions," though he included in that sum the reduction of $6,280,000 which it was expected to bring about in the internal revenue by the changes in the tobacco schedules. All this goes to show that Senator Carlisle was perfectly justified in beginning his final speech against the bill by saying: "It is not my purpose to attempt to state what the effect of this measure will be upon the public revenue, because it would be impossible to do so with any degree of accuracy." Thus the so-called "bill to reduce the revenues" was a leap into the dark.

But we now have ten months to look back upon, during which the law has been in actual operation, and are in a position to test prophecy by fact. The sums turned into the national Treasury from customs receipts in the ten months since last October amount to $168,755,985.38. For the corresponding months of the preceding fiscal year the collections were $195,416,296.36. Thus the apparent falling off is $26,660,310.98, or at the rate of $32,092,373.16 for twelve months. But two features of the McKinley Bill come in seriously to modify this showing—the sugar schedules and the tin-plate clauses. Sugar and molasses have been free only since April 1, and, so far as they are concerned, the full effect of the tariff has been visible during the past four months alone. Restricting the comparison to them, we find that the revenue derived from customs during that period, this year, was $54,224,031.33, while for the corresponding part of 1890 it was $82,551,083.22. Here, then, is a falling off of $28,327,051.89 in no more than four months, or at the rate of $84,981,155.64 a year. This would leave Senators Aldrich and Allison from forty to fifty millions under the mark.

But the tin-plate clause of the bill remains to be considered in its effects upon the national revenue. Going into effect no earlier than July 1 of this year, it leaves us with the customs returns of only a single month under the full operation of McKinleyism. In the first place, it is certain that an extra revenue has been derived from the extra importations made to anticipate the tax going into force July 1. A fair estimate of this would be not far from $3,000,000. This sum should then be added to the $84,981,155.64 given above. It may be objected that this deduction for tin plate will more than be made good when we resume importing under the higher rate. No true McKinleyite will make this objection, for he is bound to maintain that we are going to make our own tin plate. However, it looks very much as if we should have to continue importing, and we therefore will be perfectly fair, and leave the tin-plate revenue out of the account altogether for the present fiscal year, balancing the large stock on hand against the increased duties. In the following fiscal year (1892–3) probably the revenue from tin plate will be about $15,000,000, or twice what it was in 1889–90, which was a year of normal importation. This increase will, however, be more than offset by the bounties on home-grown sugar.

We do not say that the falling off of $85,000,000 a year which we thus obtain as the probable effect of the McKinley Bill on customs revenue is to be the absolute and final effect of that law. We simply say that it is the best estimate that can be made from four months of actual experience, and that such an estimate, faulty though it may prove to be, is worth more than blind guesses made beforehand. The future has too many uncertain elements, such as the possibility of increased imports at higher rates, to allow one to be dogmatical. But the basis of fact we have to go upon, narrow though it be, enables us to emphasize afresh the reckless and ignorant folly with which a bill of such tremendous though unknown effect upon the national income was enacted. Piling up appropriations to an unprecedented height, and then passing a tariff which will possibly cut off the revenue by $85,000,000, is the crowning proof of that "genius for legislation" which, we have been told, characterizes the Republican party.

THE SWISS CELEBRATION.

IT seems a little strange that a people so fond as ours of celebrating the anniversaries of the beginnings of their institutions should have manifested so little interest in the recent celebration in Switzerland. This ancient republic has now represented the cause of freedom for 600 years, and, although not the direct source of our own institutions, has had a greater influence upon them than is generally recognized. During the period when despotism was most rampant, the Swiss gave shelter to the victims of political and religious persecution, often with much peril to themselves; and it is easy to trace the results in English and Scottish history of the sojourn of these reformers in Switzerland. Nor should it be forgotten that the primitive institutions of free government, from which the present institutions of the Teutonic races have been developed, are still flourishing among the Swiss mountains. As Mr. Freeman says, the Englishman passing through Altdorf on any first Sunday in May "may feel the thrill of looking, for the first time, face to face, upon freedom in its purest and most ancient form; for this is the land where the oldest institutions of our race still live in all their primeval freshness, in a country where an immemorial freedom puts to shame the boasted antiquity of kingly dynasties."

It is instructive to recall the words of the compact made in 1291, between the three forest cantons. They are substantially as follows:

"In the name of the Lord! Amen. It is for

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the public honor and advantage that treaties relating to peace and security should be framed in a becoming manner. Be it known, therefore, to every one that the people of the valley of Uri, the members of the commune of the valley of Schwyz, and those of the commune of the lower valley of Unterwalden, in view of the troubles of the times, to the end that they may be able better to protect themselves and theirs, and maintain themselves in comfort, have bound themselves in good faith to render one another mutual assistance in succor, in counsel, and in goods, whether persons or things are involved, whether within or without the valleys, with all their power and with all their good will, against those, one and all, who offer any violence towards them or any one of them, who do them any wrong or injury either in person or goods: and each community promises the others to come to their assistance on every occasion so soon as necessary and at its own expense, to repel so soon as there is need the attacks of the evil-disposed, and to avenge injuries."

There follow provisions binding the confederates not to recognize any "judge," meaning probably an officer charged with the administration of justice by the German Empire, if he has bought his office or does not belong to the community, provisions for the settlement of disputes by arbitrators selected from the wisest, whose decisions are to be enforced by the confederates, and other clauses relating to the punishment of certain crimes. A few years later, in 1307, this agreement was confirmed by the oath of the three patriots who met, according to tradition, on the shores of the Vierwaldstättersee, near the stone converted some years since into a monument to Schiller, as the poet who had most worthily celebrated the deeds of William Tell. The famous victories over the Austrian Dukes at Morgarten and Sempach, and those over Charles the Bold at Granson and Morat, proved the power of the confederates, and canton after canton was admitted until, after many vicissitudes, the Union assumed its present form.

While there have been dark episodes in Swiss history, and while the constitutions of many of the cantons were until recently of a highly aristocratic character, the cause of human freedom has never lacked defenders in Switzerland. It was, however, in their enlightened recognition of the fact that freedom cannot maintain itself in small and disunited communities that the Swiss have taught the world their most valuable lesson. Because they would not consent to yield to one another, to relinquish their full independence, for the sake of the common defence against external foes, the Greek cities ended careers full of glorious promise to humanity, in misery and subjection. In the same way the Italian republics suffered the most terrible calamities rather than enter into any effective confederation, and finally sank under the yoke of tyrants more barbarous than those of Greece. But the rude mountaineers of Switzerland combined with their love of freedom a hard common sense that taught them that their little cantons would be conquered in detail by the powerful States with which they were surrounded, unless they abandoned their petty jealousies and made common cause against all aggressors; yet it was only gradually that the Federal Government acquired control of the army, and the tendency to centralization has been steadily held in check until recently, when the substantial unity of the country has led to a general recognition of the disadvantages attending too great diversity in cantonal legislation. It is not a centralization of administration, however, that exists, for the true governing body is the *Gemeinde*, or commune, just as the town is in New England.

The chief feature of the celebration which has just taken place was the performance of an historical play at Schwytz, much after the manner of the performance of the "Passion Play" at Ober-Ammergau, the situation of the theatre being one of the most picturesque in Switzerland. Three Helvetian families, in a semi-savage state, were represented as arriving in Schwytz 200 years before the Christian era, and from these families the hunters of Uri, the fishermen of the Lake of the Four Cantons, and the herdsmen of Schwytz trace their descent. Succeeding tableaux showed the signing of the League of 1291, the heroic deeds of Tell, the defeats of the Austrians and Burgundians, and other noted events. The costumes were intended to be historically appropriate, and the different scenes were relieved by instrumental music and popular choruses, while in the evening the whole country was illuminated. The final celebration took place upon the Rütli, where a scene from the second act of Schiller's "Wilhelm Tell" was performed by a choir of 750 male voices. Altogether, the celebration seems to have been worthy of the notable occasion and of the grand and beautiful surroundings, and to have aroused very lively interest throughout Europe, even the Austrian Minister being present.

OUR FEDERAL JUDICIAL ESTABLISHMENT.—II.

How many of the judges exercise jurisdiction in the places where they grew up professionally, does not appear except by inference. It is probable that most of them reached the bench in that ordinary way, though doubtless the war and the reconstruction troubles produced some aberration in this respect in the Southern States. But it is interesting to note that of the nine Supreme judges five are New England born or reared, two were born in New York, and two in the Southern States; but no man born in the West is now upon that bench, though Field, Brewer, and Brown are Western men in the sense that their professional training and experience were had in that section. Of the ten Circuit judges, one is a New England man, and upon the bench there; three were born in New York, two being upon the bench in that State, and one an emigrant to California; one each was born in Pennsylvania, Indiana, Maryland, and Tennessee, where, respectively, they grew up, so to speak, to the bench; one was born in Ohio, where he was trained professionally, and, settling after the war in Louisiana, was appointed to the bench there, succeeding another Ohio man similarly appointed to the Circuit bench in the South and then promoted to the Supreme bench, giving that State at the time three judges on that bench, and one, born in Virginia and trained professionally in Iowa, was, during the war, appointed by Lincoln to the District bench in Arkansas, and afterwards, and recently, to the Circuit bench from that State by President Harrison.

Of the sixty-four District judges, counting by the bare fact of birth, and following the conventional geographical divisions of the Union, there are twelve New England men, sixteen Middle State men, ten Western State men, twenty-five Southern State men, and one foreign-born. But, counting by professional training, and taking the two great political divisions which have, unfortunately, always existed, we have forty-five Northern and nineteen Southern men. In this enumeration, Bruce of Alabama, born in Scotland, but brought up in Iowa; Love of Iowa, born in Virginia, but brought up in Iowa; Deady of Oregon, born in Maryland; Woods of Indiana, born in Tenneseee; Ross of California, born in Virginia; Allen of Illinois, born in Tennessee, and Swayne of Florida, born in Delaware and brought up in Pennsylvania—all Northern men, in fact, by education and residence—are counted as such, although actually born in the Southern States; while Thayer of Missouri, born in New York, is, for the same reason, counted as a Southern man. Then we have the totals on this line of division—of the Supreme judges, seven Northern and two Southern men; of the Circuit judges, eight Northern and two Southern men; and of the District judges, forty-five Northern and nineteen Southern men, or a grand total of sixty Northern men and twenty-three Southern men in a total of eighty-three judges.

Of the Supreme judges, four Northern men exercise their Circuit jurisdiction exclusively in Northern States, and one Southern man exclusively in Southern States; one Northern man exclusively in Southern States, and one Southern man exclusively in Northern States; and two Northern men each partly in Northern and partly in Southern States.

Of the ten Circuit judges, six Northern men exercise their jurisdiction exclusively in Northern States; one Northern and one Southern man exclusively in Southern States; and one Northern and one Southern man each partly in Northern and partly in Southern States.

Of the District judges, there is no judge professionally trained in the Southern States exercising jurisdiction in any Northern State, except sometimes by special assignment in an emergency, though five of the judges of Northern districts were actually born in the South. But in the fifteen Southern States eight of the judges are Northern men by birth and professional training; and of all the thirty-four judges, Supreme, Circuit, and District, exercising the jurisdiction of the Circuit and District courts in those States, twelve are Northern men and twenty-two Southern men; while of the forty-two judges having the same jurisdiction in the Northern States, only two, Harlan and Jackson, are Southern men. The total result here is, that there are sixty Northern and only twenty-three Southern judges.

Counting the averages of population, the disparity between the North and South is still apparent. According to the population of the States by the census of 1890, of the whole eighty-three judges competent to hold the Circuit and District courts, the average gives a judge to every 744,442 people. The North should have a small fraction over fifty-three of them, say fifty-four, and the South a large fraction over twenty-nine of them. The North has, in fact, sixty and the South twenty-three, so that the South is six judges short in the present division. By a similar calculation the South is entitled to a small fraction over three of the nine Supreme judges, and has but two, the North having seven; likewise of the ten

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Circuit judges there should be a large fraction over six for the North, say seven, and three for the South, while the latter has but two; and the South, by the average of population, should have twenty-three of the sixty-four District judges and the North forty-one; but the North has forty-five and the South only nineteen, so that the general result is that the South has one less of the Supreme judges, one less of the existing Circuit judges, and four less of the District judges, than her share according to the average of population.

This disparity of distribution is attributable, no doubt, to the war, but it is probably not the less distasteful to the Southern people, and perhaps accounts for much of the unpopularity of the Federal courts in that section, and the half-concealed unfriendliness to them that often exhibits itself in Congress. But it should also be noted that the South has, numerically, one more District judge than her share, albeit so many of them are Northern men. The share, according to population, of each is almost exactly forty-one and twenty-three of the existing list of sixty-four; the North has forty and the South twenty-four of them, which is, so far as mere numbers go, a remarkably even balancing of the service, though the disparity is so great in the other respects mentioned.

Of the nineteen Circuit judges that we shall have when the President appoints the new nine, the North, according to population, should have a small fraction over twelve, say thirteen; and the South nearly seven, say six. Of the ten Circuit judges now existing, the North has eight by professional training and the South only two. To equalize them, the North should have, of the new nine, five, and the South four, or one for each of the Circuits to which the Southern States are attached, except Delaware, which has heretofore been included in this analysis among the Southern States; or, again so including that State, one each for four of the five Circuits having Southern States, which would then give the North thirteen of the nineteen Circuit judges and the South six. This would also be, probably, a fair division on any other basis than that of population; and when it is considered that the North has so much advantage among the Supreme judges, who are likewise members of the new Courts of Appeal along with these Circuit judges, it would seem as if the mitigation of the existing inequality between the sections should wisely be regarded by the President as worthy of his attention.

Another interesting feature of the judicial service as exhibited by the Register of the Department of Justice, particularly since the President has shown a disposition to promote judges where it can be done consistently with other considerations, is the length of the service of the judges, as shown by the dates of their commissions. The facts as to the Supreme judges are already quite well known, but as to the others most people are perhaps not so well informed. The oldest in point of service of the Supreme judges is Justice Field, appointed by Lincoln in 1863, but, as will be presently seen, there are five other judges older than he in commission. Justice Bradley comes next, appointed by Grant in 1870; then Justice Harlan, appointed by Hayes in 1877; then the two appointees of Arthur, viz., Justices Gray and Blatchford, in 1881 and 1882 respectively; after these, Justice Lamar and Chief-Justice Fuller, appointed by Cleveland in 1888; and, lastly, Justices Brewer and Brown, appointed by Harrison in 1889 and 1890 respectively.

Here it may be noted that, notwithstanding the apparently long tenure of the Federal judges, as to whom Mr. Jefferson's often quoted taunt that "Vacancies by death are few, by resignation, none," is quite frequently remembered, only two of the Supreme judges antedate Hayes's Administration. Of all the judges there are only twenty-two (but little more than one-fourth of them) appointed prior to the Hayes Administration; in other words, three-fourths of them have been appointed within fifteen years. The data are not at hand for ascertaining the average length of service of the Federal judges, but it is doubtful if, taking them all together since the beginning, this average would be much higher than that of the State judges in those States having long terms of years as a tenure, and where the habit is to reëlect the judges once or twice until they die or are too old to serve. This would be an interesting comparison if some one had the patience to make it for a century of time in all the State and Federal courts. The more intelligent advocates of an elective judiciary agree that the terms should be long, and a reëlection certain if the judge be a satisfactory one in all respects. This would give to such a system all the advantage that comes from long experience, and, in the average, to the judge about as long a tenure in fact as he would probably have in the other. There are other advantages and disadvantages, to be sure, with either system; but sometimes the fact is overlooked that an elective Federal judiciary would quite destroy the reason of there being any Federal judiciary at all. The local influence in favor of a resident against a non-resident would be paramount in the election of the judge, and he might be subordinate to it; wherefore, since the non-resident may not vote for the judge, he can only exercise a choice about his selection through the common agent of both, the President. This consideration probably makes the selection of Federal judges by some common agency a necessity.

The Circuit judges were unknown prior to 1870, and of the original appointees by Grant in 1870, only Sawyer of California and Bond of Maryland remain; then comes Pardee of Louisiana, appointed by Garfield in 1881, who, with Boarman, one of the District judges in Louisiana, alone represents that Administration among all these judges; next are Wallace of New York, 1882, Colt of Rhode Island and Gresham of Indiana, both, in 1884, appointed by Arthur; next are Jackson of Tennessee, 1886, and Lacombe of New York, 1887, appointed by Cleveland; and, lastly, Caldwell of Arkansas and Acheson of Pennsylvania, 1891, appointed by Harrison, who has already, through factitious circumstances, appointed more judges than any of the Presidents except, possibly, Washington at the original organization, and Grant at the reconstruction period of the Union. He has within two years appointed two Supreme, two Circuit, and fifteen District judges—nineteen in all; and will probably exceed any one of the Presidents before his term expires, since he has a newly made set of Circuit judges to appoint, as Grant had, and the new States have nearly set off the reconstruction judges appointed by Grant.

The roster of the District Judges is as follows: Hoffman, California, 1851, by Fillmore; Love, Iowa, 1856, by Pierce*; Nelson, Minnesota, 1858, Deady, Oregon, 1859, by Buchanan; Jackson, West Virginia, 1861, Benedict, New York, 1865, by Lincoln; Hill, Mississippi, 1866, Dundy, Nebraska, 1868, by Johnson; Blodgett, Illinois, 1870, Locke, Florida, 1872, Dick, North Carolina, 1872, Shipman, Connecticut, 1873, Hughes, Virginia, 1874, Foster, Kansas, 1874, Bruce, Alabama, 1875, Parker, Arkansas, 1875, Billings, Louisiana, 1876, Hallet, Colorado, 1887, by Grant; Wheeler, Vermont, 1877, Bunn, Wisconsin, 1877, Hammond, Tennessee, 1878, Nelson, Massachusetts, 1879, Butler, Pennsylvania, 1879, McCormick, Texas, 1879, Morris, Maryland, 1879, Barr, Kentucky, 1880, Key, Tennessee, 1880, by Hayes; Boarman, Louisiana, 1881, by Garfield; Brown, New York, 1881, Webb, Maine, 1882, Seymour, North Carolina, 1882, Coxe, New York, 1882, Shires, Iowa, 1882, Paul, Virginia, 1883, Sage, Ohio, 1884, Woods, Indiana, 1884, Wales, Delaware, 1884, Carpenter, Rhode Island, 1884, Speer, Georgia, 1885, by Arthur; Severens, Michigan, 1886, Newman, Georgia, 1886, Simonton, South Carolina, 1886, Toulmin, Alabama, 1887, Ross, California, 1887, Thayer, Missouri, 1887, Allen, Illinois, 1888, Maxey, Texas, 1888, Phillips, Missouri, 1888, Jenkins, Wisconsin, 1888, by Cleveland; and Edgerton, South Dakota, 1889, Ricks, Ohio, 1890, Green, New Jersey, 1890, Knowles, Montana, 1890, Thomas, North Dakota, 1890, Hanford, Washington, 1890, Swayne, Florida, 1890, Bryant, Texas, 1890, Hawley, Nevada, 1890, Williams, Arkansas, 1890, Riner, Wyoming, 1890, Swan, Michigan, 1891, Reed, Pennsylvania, 1891, Aldrich, New Hampshire, 1891, and Beatty, Idaho, 1891, by Harrison. Summing up, we reckon: Fillmore one, Pierce one, Buchanan two, Lincoln two, Johnson two, Grant ten, Hayes nine, Garfield one, Arthur eleven, Cleveland ten, and Harrison fifteen. Leaving out the new States, Harrison has appointed nine of these judges within the first half of his term, which, at the same rate during the next half, would give about one-third of the whole body within a Presidential term; Cleveland, however, appointed only ten during his whole term, which, making allowance for newly created districts and judges, would bring his list very far below this estimate for Harrison, and below any average for all the Presidents suggested by existing lists. Vacancies by resignation or retirement are few, though in neither case is Mr. Jefferson's statement that "none resign" true; but, with Harrison, vacancies in the body of District judges have been increased by his policy of promotion, there being three of these; which, again leaving out the new States, somewhat accounts for his already larger list than the others.

*The deaths of Judges Hoffman and Love have been very recently announced.

While the facts might be accurately ascertained by a sufficient examination of other records, it may be here approximately estimated from the statistics obtainable in the Register, that at least one-fourth of the judges are changed during every Presidential term, as an average for the whole century and a little more, during the existence of the system. This would give, approximately, an average tenure of sixteen years, which may be little, if any, more than the tenure of reëlected judges in the Supreme courts of the States having the best elective systems; though, of course, the actual tenure of State judges of original cognizance would probably be found to be far less upon like averages, for it is with those judges, subject to narrower local conditions, that the elective system produces the most rapid changes.

There is no means of finding the averages of ages of the judges (though there should be) from the Register, even approximately; but since eight of the district judges (one-eighth of the whole number) were appointed prior to 1870, and these go back to Fillmore in 1851, in

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one case, and since it is known that, until quite recently, elderly men were preferred for the bench, this average must be quite large, and, as a mere guess, from general appearances, would probably reach the age of sixty, or be very near that figure. The newspapers report one of these judges, Hill of Mississippi, who has just retired at the age of eighty, after twenty-five years of service, to be "hale and hearty," and there are six judges older in commission than he. The Grant judges must be mostly past sixty, taking forty as an average of the age of going on the bench—and it is perhaps short of the exact average some years—and many appointed since Grant must be likewise past sixty; so that that age is probably below, rather than above, the exact average.

Arranged more interestingly by circuits, and in the order of their commissions, this body of District judges presents the following result: *First Circuit*—Nelson, Massachusetts, 1879; Webb, Maine, 1882; Carpenter, Rhode Island, 1884; Aldrich, New Hampshire, 1891. *Second Circuit*—Benedict, New York, 1865; Shipman, Connecticut, 1873; Wheeler, Vermont, 1877; Brown, New York, 1881; Coxe, New York, 1882. *Third Circuit*—Butler, Pennsylvania, 1879; Wales, Delaware, 1884; Green, New Jersey, 1890; Reed, Pennsylvania, 1891. *Fourth Circuit*—Jackson, West Virginia, 1861; Dick, North Carolina, 1872; Hughes, Virginia, 1874; Morris, Maryland, 1879; Seymour, North Carolina, 1882; Paul, Virginia, 1883; Simonton, South Carolina, 1886. *Fifth Circuit*—Hill, Mississippi, 1866; Locke, Florida, 1872; Bruce, Alabama, 1875; Billings, Louisiana, 1876; McCormick, Texas, 1879; Boarman, Louisiana, 1881; Speer, Georgia, 1885; Newman, Georgia, 1886; Toulmin, Alabama, 1887; Maxey, Texas, 1888; Swayne, Florida, 1890; Bryant, Texas, 1890. *Sixth Circuit*—Hammond, Tennessee, 1878; Barr, Kentucky, 1880; Key, Tennessee, 1880; Sage, Ohio, 1884; Severens, Michigan, 1886; Ricks, Ohio, 1890; Swan, Michigan, 1891. *Seventh Circuit*—Blodgett, Illinois, 1870; Bunn, Wisconsin, 1877; Woods, Indiana, 1884; Allen, Illinois, 1888; Jenkins, Wisconsin, 1888. *Eighth Circuit*—Love, Iowa, 1856; Nelson, Minnesota, 1858; Dundy, Nebraska, 1868; Foster, Kansas, 1874; Parker, Arkansas, 1875; Hallett, Colorado, 1877; Shiras, Iowa, 1882; Thayer, Missouri, 1887; Phillips, Missouri, 1888; Edgerton, South Dakota, 1889; Thomas, North Dakota, 1890; Williams, Arkansas, 1890; Riner, Wyoming, 1890. *Ninth Circuit*—Hoffman, California, 1851; Deady, Oregon, 1859; Ross, California, 1887; Knowles, Montana, 1890; Hanford, Washington, 1890; Hawley, Nevada, 1890; Beatty, Idaho, 1891.

There is much other useful information in the Register concerning the Department of Justice. It gives the names, with other items of interest, of the Territorial judges, judges of the courts of the District of Columbia, the notaries public there, the other officials of the District connected with that Department, the Circuit Court Commissioners, the clerks and marshals of the courts, and like ready-reference knowledge that is often needed. But we have confined this notice of the publication to the Federal judicial establishment as it relates to the States, because of its importance to the country generally.

THE GREAT WAGNER FETISH.

BAYREUTH, August, 1891.

GREATER than ever this summer have been the crowds flocking to Bayreuth. The town is filled to overflowing, the hotels are charging what they please, every citizen with a room to spare has turned it to profit by taking in a lodger. The biggest bank in the place has become a ticket office, the druggists are selling Parsifal perfumery—the stationers, Wagner souvenirs—and all shopkeepers advertise the Holy Grail, in *Purpurglas und Metalfuss*, at the lowest possible price. Even the Bayreuth barmaid has figured as Kundry. In a word, as the most devout Wagnerites are admitting, the memory of the great man has been converted into a commercial commodity worked for all it is worth by the Fenstal Bank and the Sonne Hotel; the opera-house built by the Wagner societies of Europe has been made a rendezvous for Cook's tourists; and Bayreuth is already as exploited as Ober-Ammergau and Nizhni-Novgorod.

That it is not the music alone which attracts the crowd, goes without saying. So few cared for it before the opera-house was built that there was trouble enough, as is well known, to carry through the enterprise. Those few—musicians themselves, or honest, intelligent lovers of music—are to be found in Bayreuth, but they are in the minority. The large numbers who more than willingly pay their twenty marks, or five dollars, for one performance, understand as little about music as the tourists who flock to the national galleries of Europe understand about pictures. To discuss the relative merits of Wagner would be quite too late in the day, if these had anything to do with the phenomenal success of the annual Bayreuth festival. But even the initiated attribute this success chiefly to the perfect manner in which every performance as a whole is conducted; and praise of the artistic stage management has been repeated until it is accepted as an article of faith in the Wagner creed. I needed no proof of the musical greatness of the Wagner opera when I came to Bayreuth: it was, therefore, in the artistic presentation that my interest was most keenly aroused. The stage manager who is also an artist is not to be found every day.

Of course, one is specially anxious to see "Parsifal," as it cannot be performed outside of Bayreuth, and it was at "Parsifal" I received my first impressions. With the theatre itself no fault can be found. As there was not much money to be spent on it, the exterior has been sacrificed to the interior—which is as it should be, though the fact is to be regretted; for the building stands in a commanding position in the valley, of which it might be made the most striking feature. But when you first see it from the near hills, as I did coming into Bayreuth by the highroad from the Bohemian frontier, it looks like a big, bare, ugly barn backing up against the beautiful great greenwood behind it. What a glorious building an artistic architect with plenty of money to spend could have made! It does not improve in appearance when one comes closer to it. But the interior more nearly approaches perfection than any theatre I know of. The entrances and exits are most admirably arranged, and there is not a seat from which the stage cannot be seen. To be sure, from the gallery you have not such a good view as from below, and if you happen to be sitting there, you feel very doubtful as to the excellence of the plan of charging the same price all over the house. When Wagner was alive and in Bayreuth, and when the performance brought together members of Wagner societies from the world over, all in the first freshness of their enthusiasm, it was another matter. But now that the festival has degenerated into a commercial enterprise, principally for the benefit of the Fenstal Bank and the Sonne Hotel, I am irreverent enough to think that the scale of charges adopted by ordinary theatres would answer as well. Probably, general interest might grow less with the price; too many of the goods of this world are prized according to their cost.

The edifying hush that suddenly falls upon the audience, together with the beauty of the overture, heightens one's expectations. It is consequently something of a disappointment, when the curtain goes up on the first act of "Parsifal," to see a very commonplace woodland scene, neither better nor worse than that produced in the average theatre. My first thought was that Mr. Irving might give them a tip or two at Bayreuth. In this wood, with its decided attempt at realism, *Gurnemanz* and the knights and squires, posing in stained-glass attitudes, and grouping themselves into primitive compositions after Pinturicchio or Hans Memling, seemed as out of keeping as Claude Lantier's naked women rising from the Seine opposite Notre Dame. For the scenery is realistic according to the modern standard of realism, and yet the performers, one and all, are as stiff and stagy and unreal as the typical tenor of the opera of the past. There is scarcely a gesture of Grengg as *Gurnemanz*, not a movement of Van Dyck as *Parsifal*, not a pose of Reichmann as *Amfortas*, that is not conventional and academic to a fault. Materna as *Kundry*, lying on a palpably painted rubber air-bag which does duty for a mound, is no more natural or real. The flight on a wire across the scene of the swan, stiff and without a throe in its death agony, is simply funny; and its disappearance behind a bush, and the immediate entry of the knights with a stuffed bird, its neck twisted out of shape, savors too much of old stage tricks. Nor is there the least impressiveness or dramatic force in the famous walk of *Parsifal* and *Gurnemanz* through the woods. The renowned gradual shifting of the scenery, accomplished by jerks, is no better than it might be at a Sunday-school panorama, and Van Dyck and Grengg hardly increase the intended allusion by walking when the scenery stands still and standing still when it moves. But even they evidently appreciate their ridiculous position, and speedily vanish in the wings.

All this may sound like hypercriticism, but the Wagnerites have so loudly and so often insisted upon the artistic as well as musical perfection of the Wagner opera that they have led us to expect a high standard. It would be absurd to pretend that the opera depended upon the scenery for its greatness; all who have heard Mr. Theodore Thomas's interpretation of Wagner know better. It would be as sensible to run down the acting at the Théâtre Français because the stage setting is so poor. But at the Comédie-Française no pretension to artistic or pictorial effect is made. When there is this pretension, then we look at a stage in an entirely different manner. Since Mr. Irving has shown how beautiful and artistic stage pictures can be, we must either have the thing well done or not done at all. Unfortunately, at Bayreuth there is an ambitious attempt which too often falls hopelessly short of our modern ideals.

It is even worse with the other scenes. At the Lyceum we have seen elaborate architecture perfectly and adequately rendered. In "Parsifal" the hall of the Holy Grail is but an impossible architectural hybrid, a species of Venetian St. Mark's, a Moorish scheme of decoration, while the perspective is so out that when the Knights of the Holy Grail come marching in they are taller than the distant

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columns. One wishes almost that the background had been left as entirely to one's imagination as the scenery in Bottom's play, for the members of the chorus at Bayreuth have been marvellously well trained, and throughout the two hall scenes the solemnity and earnestness with which the services are conducted are as fine and dramatic as anything I have ever seen in any theatre. But even here there is much in the way of grouping and posing that an Irving might have improved; and in the first scene Van Dyck, in his desire not to detract from the central interest, stands so motionless that one begins nervously to watch him to see how long he can remain without moving hand or foot. It must be noted, too, that even the best effects are ruined by the electric light, which is thrown about on the stage with as much artistic feeling as there is in the regulation of a search-light in a man-of-war. The illumination of the Grail is really not up to the level of Niblo's or Drury Lane. Indeed, throughout, the lighting of the stage is as ineffective as that of the house is satisfactory. In the second act, where *Klingsor* summons *Kundry*, the blue light never once hits the smoke upon which it is intended to fall.

The palm for inartistic arrangement, however, must be given to the magic garden in the second act. Such gaudy coloring, such hideous crudeness, such artless composition, would hardly be expected outside of a Surreyside pantomime. It may be necessary that the flowers should be colossal in size, in order that the relations of the flower-girls to them may be duly observed. But the scene when *Parsifal* appears suggests nothing so much as the straying of a Gulliver into a Brobdingnagian garden; and, even if the flowers must be of such gigantic proportions, that is no reason why in color and form they should outrage every law of beauty. The height of ugliness is reached when Frau Materna, in a brilliant yellow satin gown, is shoved in on a wheeled couch, the flower beds having to be hauled up to the flies to make room for her, and one more inharmonious note is added to an already crude color scheme. Personalties are to be avoided in this personal age, and I shall content myself by saying that, in the scene which follows, if *Parsifal* and *Kundry* could be as effectually concealed from the audience as the orchestra is, the power of the music would gain rather than lose. Unquestionably, as an artistic spectacle, "Parsifal" does not deserve its present fame; though every Wagnerite will assure you that it far excels "Tannhäuser" or "Tristan," either of which can be as well seen in Dresden, London, or New York.

But what matter? To go to Bayreuth has been made the correct thing, and the public flock thither like so many sheep, though they could not themselves say whether the music is fine or the stage management artistic. Of course there are the few who really and genuinely appreciate the music; but to one-half of the rest of the audience the opera is a sacred rite at which they assist, as the Catholic assists at the sacrifice of the Mass, without a question, without a doubt, without a murmur; they are as much in earnest as the worshipper of Ibsen, or of Browning, or of Burne-Jones. To the other half it is a freak of fashion which it would not do for them to ignore, and they sit through the performance as conscientiously as they wear (if they are women) high sleeves and small bonnets, (if they are men) low-cut vests and linen shirts. They may be bored to death, but it is their duty, just as it is to see the "Passion Play" at Ober-Ammergau, or the Sistine Madonna at Dresden. And, after all, there is breathing-space in the three-quarters of an hour intervals, when the run on the two near restaurants is like that of hungry travellers at a railway station, the scrimmage only ceasing when the trumpeters, led by a man in a seedy top hat with an umbrella under his left arm, sound the summons to return to the holy place. But whether fashion or faith brings them to Bayreuth, all alike know beforehand exactly what will be their thoughts, their impressions, their emotions, and can tell you exactly what to admire, what to praise, what to feel; just as the American girls I saw the other day in the Munich Pinakothek were prepared by Baedeker to be "maddened" by the Murillos, though they had not a glance to spare for the Velasquez portraits in the same room.

Truly, this is an age of blither, and I am not sure that, of all, the most offensive is not the Wagner blither. That the Bayreuth performances have many good qualities, it would be senseless to deny; that Wagner cannot be as adequately rendered elsewhere, it would be equally foolish to pretend. That some of his best interpreters are to be heard at Bayreuth is true; but that their singing there without wage adds to their merit, when nowhere could they find a better advertisement or be more royally fêted, is but the sentimental fancy of a fashionably sentimental public. Of all the Bayreuth fallacies, however, none is greater than the belief that at the Wagner Theatre the problem of artistic stage management has been most successfully solved. N. N.

ANCIENT ALPINE GLACIERS.

LYONS, France, August 5, 1891.

EXTENSIVE as were the ice-fields of Europe during the glacial period, there was a wide belt untouched by glaciers between the Alps and the German Ocean. The Scandinavian glaciers barely reached the delta of the Rhine at Arnhem, in Holland, where there is a well-marked terminal moraine, behind which, to the Zuyder Zee, there is an uneven sandy accumulation much like many portions of southeastern Massachusetts, and betraying its northern and glacial origin by the frequent Scandinavian boulders which it bears.

Ascending the Rhine, I was shown by Prof. Schumacher of Carlsruhe finely glaciated boulders from the Black Forest some distance to the east of Freiburg, proving beyond dispute that during the glacial period these low mountains were a separate centre of glacial dispersion, though the glaciers did not extend more than half way down to the Rhine valley.

The ancient Alpine glaciers reached the Rhine at Schaffhausen, and evidently obstructed its drainage for some distance below, towards Basle, causing Lake Constance to rise much above its present level and to extend to the southern foot-hills of the Black Forest. The indications of this are readily seen, even from the railroad train, some time before reaching Schaffhausen, in coming down from the pass which leads to the head-waters of the Danube.

The whole valley of Switzerland between the Alps and the Jura Mountains is covered with irregular glacial deposits, which betray their Alpine origin both by their relation to the various valleys leading to the living glaciers of the high Alps, and by the characteristic boulders derived from the centres to which the valleys lead. On the upper part of Lake Constance, for example, the boulders are derived from the mountains about the head-waters of the Rhine and its tributaries, and it was long ago observed that they always keep upon the same side of the valley from which they were derived, as would be the case with such objects transported upon glaciers rather than on floating ice. The same thing has been noted also in the distribution of boulders brought down from the high Alps through the valley of the Rhone.

Upon the south side of the Alps the glaciated area is not as extensive as upon the northern side, but the moraines are in most cases more distinct and interesting. To the north the ice movement was obstructed and diverted by the Jura Mountains, which interferes somewhat with the simplicity of the problem of tracing out the distribution of morainic material. But in Italy there was nothing to interfere with the motion, and the mighty glacial currents filled all the narrow valleys leading into Piedmont and Lombardy, and deployed out upon the plains as far as their momentum would carry them. All the Italian lakes were channels of glacial movement, and all owe their origin to dams produced by the terminal moraines which were piled up in front of them.

The largest of the morainic accumulations in Italy is near Ivrea, at the mouth of the Dora Baltea, the valley which carried off the surplus ice from the southern flanks both of Mount Blanc and of Monte Rosa. The terminal moraine across this valley is really gigantic in its proportions. But travellers are most likely to see and be interested in the remarkable series of moraines which surround the southern end of Lake Garda in the vicinity of Verona. This series consists of three or four semicircular lines of drift hills, beginning near the end of the lake and extending with ever-widening enclosures until the radius of the largest is seven or eight miles in length. The railroad from Brescia to Verona intersects the outer moraine, on the west, at Lonato, and on the east at Somma Campagna.

From a military point of view, the southern end of this lake has been of great strategic importance, and Peschiera is now a strongly fortified town. But, long before the dawn of history, a natural line of defence had been thrown up by the ice of the glacial period in the semicircular moraines which I have just mentioned. In the campaign of 1859, when Louis Napoleon and Victor Emmanuel joined hands to expel the Austrians from Italy, it may truly be said that the ancient glaciers fought, but fought in vain, for the Austrians. The Austrian Army under Gen. Benedek were in possession of these natural fortifications referred to, and made good use of them. The centre of Benedek's army was at Solferino, at the southern border of the outer moraine. To the right, his troops stretched around to the end of the lake, sheltered behind the low earthworks which the ancient glaciers had so conveniently provided. To the left, the line had similar protection. The French and Italians were compelled to conduct their movements on exterior lines on the open, level plain. The Austrian General failed, however, to mass his troops sufficiently at the centre, and the day at Solferino was fatal to his cause. But it meant United Italy, and very properly the low summit of one of the moraine hills near the place occupied by the Austrian headquarters is now crowned with a noble monument to celebrate the victory and the great aspirations to which it gave free scope.

Westward from the Alps the ancient glaciers extended into the valley of the Rhone as far as Lyons, leaving a characteristic boulder seven or eight feet in diameter upon the hill upon which the upper part of the city is built. I was glad to see that it had been properly ap-

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preciated by the city authorities and duly labelled by them. The accumulations of gravel in the vicinity of Lyons, corresponding to the terraces so characteristic of the streams similarly situated in America, also speak with unmistakable significance of the former reign of ice. In studying these grounds, I think I have made a discovery of much importance with reference to the origin of Lake Geneva.

As is well known, there has been a long controversy among geologists over the formation of the Swiss lakes, as over that of the fjords of Norway. One class maintains that they are mainly the product of ice erosion; the other, that they are due to water erosion. The discovery respecting Lake Geneva is that probably it is largely the result of a glacial dam like the lakes of Italy. Even the transient tourist can hardly fail to have his attention attracted by the extensive gravel plains a hundred feet or more above the water level surrounding the west end of the lake, and extending several miles to the Jura Mountains on the west, and indefinitely southwest. At Fort l'Ecluse, the Rhone is seen to cut through the limestone cliff of the Jura in a narrow gorge unlike that occupied by streams which have had an indefinite period of existence. All this points to what we are so familiar with in America, namely, a buried channel somewhere, which has, in geologically recent times, forced the current into its present course. On reaching Seyssel, the problem seems to be solved. A straight line through a wide opening of the mountain leads from here to Geneva, and is occupied by glacial deposits. Here there is ample room for a buried channel, which, in preglacial times, might have lowered the level of the lake several hundred feet. I am confident that further investigations will confirm this hypothesis. While this may not wholly remove the ground of contention between the extreme advocates of glacial erosion and water erosion, it certainly reduces the terms of the problem to quite moderate dimensions, and leaves only a small portion of the lower depths of the lake to be accounted for.

These studies also strongly confirm the conclusions derived from the glacial phenomena of America—namely, that the recession of the glaciers of the great Ice Age was both paroxysmal and rapid. There were certain long periods of rest in the retreat, when vast lines of terminal moraines were piled up at the ice front. Then there were periods of rapid retreat, when the front did not remain stationary long enough for the formation of moraines. Certainly, during recent decades, there has been a marked recession in many of the Alpine glaciers. The Mer-de-Glace at Chamouni has withdrawn a third of a mile or more from its large terminal moraine, and its whole volume has shrunk to such an extent as to leave its old lateral moraines far up on the sides of the valley. The same condition of things is noticeable in the Bossons, and in the Fiesch glacier, as well as in the Taléfre, one of the upper tributaries of the Mer-de-Glace. According to a rough estimate made on the spot, from 1,000 to 2,000 years must have been required for the accumulation of the moraines about the front of the Mer-de-Glace and its tributaries, implying as long a period of stable conditions. But the period of present recession is so short that trees have hardly begun to cover the old moraines left behind in the retreat. The moraine extending across the valley two miles below the Argentière glacier, and just above the end of the Mer-de-Glace, is, however, densely covered with large trees. The valley of the Arve from Chamouni to Geneva contains no notable terminal moraines, a fact which indicates that when the ice began to melt back from the main valley of Switzerland, it proceeded in a pretty rapid and regular manner until reaching nearly its present limits, where it has remained for a long period.

When looking at the ruins of the noble Roman aqueduct which brought water from the hills twenty miles away to the fortified position on the eminence just west of Lyons, I was deeply impressed with the shortness of the historical period as compared with that separating us from the main events of the great Ice Age. There were these crumbling arches of substantial masonry reaching back in time nearly 2,000 years. But when they were built, the topography of the country was substantially what it is now. The valleys crossed have not been materially enlarged, and plants and animals have not suffered material change since the patient Romans constructed these cumbrous water channels! How much farther, then, must we go backwards in time to find palæolithic man struggling on the banks of these streams, both with the floods from the melting ice fields of Switzerland and with the strange array of fierce animals which soon after became extinct in Europe! Even upon the summit of the St. Bernard Pass, recent excavations have brought to light the foundations of an ancient temple and votive offerings which date back to 800 years before Christ, showing that thus early these mountain passes were as free from snow and ice as now.

The attentive observer cannot fail to see that all Switzerland is living on soil prepared and distributed during the great Ice Age. This goes without saying in reference to the great terminal deposits of the main valley, and to close inspection is equally evident in the smaller valleys of the high Alps. Geologically speaking, the Alps are recent in their origin—the principal part of the elevation having taken place since the Tertiary Age. There can be little reasonable doubt that the chief agency in eroding the minor valleys was water, acting continuously during the long period of time required for the mountains to attain their present elevation. Still, it is very clear that, with such an amount of elevation, the gradient is so steep that continuous and unobstructed water-action would have washed down all the soil from the steep sides of the valleys, and left them bare and rugged in the extreme. The obstructive and modifying agency required was furnished by the glaciers of the great Ice Age. These gave considerable lateral enlargement to the valleys, leaving them in U-shaped form, and spread over them with a good deal of uniformity the pulverized material of the ground moraine, while at frequent intervals in the retreat there was sufficient force to occasion an incipient terminal moraine, still further to obstruct the wash of the soil from the steep mountainsides. The V-shaped channels which the present streams are wearing in the bottom of the broader troughs modified by glacial action, furnish an important clue to an estimate of the period which has elapsed since the reign of ice in the region.

If only a small part of time and attention now in great part so aimlessly wasted by American tourists in Switzerland, could be wisely directed to a comparative study of the glacial phenomena of the two countries, important results might confidently be expected, while the pleasure of the tour would be greatly enhanced. The noble scenery of the Alps must lose half its value when the tourist fails with the mind's eye to see through existing forces the infinitely more majestic occurrences of the most recent of the geological ages.

G. Frederick Wright.

Correspondence.

THE ENFORCEMENT OF RESPONSIBILITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your last number contains another object lesson. It points to some suspicious circumstances in the relation of the Comptroller of the Currency to the Keystone National Bank, as shown in the report of Bank-Examiner Drew. It says that the Comptroller was invited to appear before the Committee of Investigation, but that the President and Cabinet decided that he should confine himself to a statement in writing, which, of course, contained only what he and they chose to admit; and it forcibly adds that this was far less satisfactory than an oral examination and cross-examination of the Comptroller would have been. There is, however, more than this to be said. Even if the Comptroller had appeared and been cross-examined in the most public manner, it would have been at the most only a "side show." Not one in ten thousand of the voters of the country would read the proceedings, or barely know of their existence, and the few who did read an account in the papers would conclude that it was entirely colored by the party passion of the particular journal; and, moreover, the distance between this and any action upon the subject by Congress would be so immeasurable that it would pass away like so many other current events, leaving "not a rack behind."

Now let us suppose a different treatment of the case. Of course, the direct responsibility for this, as for similar matters of administration, lies with the Secretary of the Treasury, and through him with the President. A rumor spreads through the country that the Opposition intend to make this a topic of attack on the Government at the next session of Congress. The members of that Opposition select their strongest man for a leader, and their other speakers in subordination, with as much care as for carrying a fortress by storm. The Government, well knowing what was impending, would prepare their case with equal care. Of course, the Secretary of the Treasury with his colleagues on the floor of the House would bear the brunt of the attack, but would gladly welcome the most available assistance on their side of the House. As soon as the session began, after the rush of business had been distributed to the committees, and Congress was in its usual position of having nothing to do, the leader of the Opposition would bring forward a resolution, and call upon the Government to name a day for its discussion. A thrill of excitement would run through the country, and when that day came, the telegraph would hold millions of auditors in breathless suspense. As the fierce conflict progressed, shouts of enthusiasm would hail every successful blow, and equally merciless would be the cry that awaited defeat. Nothing but unsullied purity of intention could serve a Government in a struggle like that. Any exposure of corruption would bring the *pollice verso* as surely as cowardice or weakness in the Roman amphitheatre. If ever we hope to uncover the dark places in our Government administration; if ever we expect to enforce that purity and singleness of purpose which alone can ensure the permanent

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stability of our institutions, it must be done, not through the criticism, however scathing, of newspa ers, either party or independent, but by the joining of blade to blade in single combat, with no quarter asked or given, upon a public arena, and in the face of the nation as spectators. Then we should begin to realize that of which we have now no conception, the force and power of public opinion. G. B.

LAKE PLACID, ESSEX Co., N. Y., August 20, 1891.

BOND OF UNION IN THE EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When an adult is baptized in the Episcopal Church, he declares that he "believes all the Articles of the Christian Faith as contained in the Apostles' Creed"; when a man is admitted to the Priesthood he promises to "give faithful diligence always so to minister the Doctrine and Sacraments and the Discipline of Christ as the Lord hath commanded, and as this Church hath received the same according to the commandments of God"; he further promises to "be ready, with all faithful diligence, to banish and drive away from the Church all erroneous and strange doctrines contrary to God's Word." In the Litany we pray to be delivered "from all false doctrine and heresy"; in the Prayer for all Conditions of Men we ask that men "may hold the faith in unity of spirit and the bond of peace," but we ask that they may "hold" it (the faith), and that "they may be led into the way of truth."

Now do these words and others like them really mean that the Episcopal Church cares little *what* we hold as the faith, and cares only about *how* we hold *something?* That is about the substance of Mr. Palmer's letter, I take it, when one really gets at the bottom of the meaning of its principal paragraph.

The facts mentioned in the Apostles' and Nicene Creed may be true or false—it is our business to face boldly all that can be said against them; but is it *honest* for me or any other clergyman, whatever my ethical aims and loving charity may be, to mean by an article of the Creed what no one in the past ever meant, to use words with a sort of esoteric explanation that the ordinary, intelligent, plain man would call a twisting or an inversion of their meaning?

"Let us face facts and dare to meet results wherever they lead us, but let us be honest in our obligations to the churches to which we belong." This I understand to be your position, and with it both Mr. Palmer and myself would assert our cordial agreement; but his language about "commercial contract," "common apprehensions," "community of aim," etc., seems to me to wrap up any practical application of honesty to the Episcopal Church in a mist of words and a swirl of vague generalities which make any amount of dishonesty the easiest thing in the world.

EDWARD M. PARKER.

CONCORD, N. H., August 15, 1891.

THE JEWISH QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Unless your readers can find anything in my first reply to "L. N. D." indicative of sympathy with the practice of flogging women to death, or with any act of cruelty on the part of the Russian Government, their justice will class that charge with the imputations of receiving Russian rubles and of being animated by habitual contempt for the weak and oppressed, which were before cast upon me, and both of which seem now to be abandoned.

Whatever I have said in the way of justification or excuse was said on behalf of the Russian people, not on behalf of the Russian Government, with regard to the acts of which I believe we are still imperfectly informed. Mr. Arnold White, Baron Hirsch's delegate to Russia, seems, as I said before, to have been allowed every facility for inquiry. He reports to the London *Times* that "many of the stories of acts of tyranny have been distorted versions of what really occurred, and that *what is represented as having taken place* all over the country is often to be taken as meaning that one man, the late Prince Dolgorukoff, ordered certain acts of severity while he was in the command of the police at Moscow."

That there are three Jews who have not practised extortion on the Russian peasantry does not prove that there are not many who have. The revolt of the peasantry, however culpable in its excesses, will, if it is entirely groundless and inexcusable, be, I believe, about the first peasant revolt in history that has not had a substantial cause.

I must beg leave to decline further discussion with an opponent whose favorite argument seems to be the imputation of base motives, and who, when an aspersion which he has cast upon the character of his antagonist is shown to be inconsistent with facts, finds a refuge from apology in insult.

I propose to say no more upon this thorny though momentous question till I can treat it more fully and in a more historical form, doing the justice which I think needs to be done to our Christian ancestors, who, whatever their delusions and aberrations may have been, were the fathers and founders of our civilization.—Yours faithfully, GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, August 22, 1891.

LIGHTNING-ARRESTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter of W. J. Roberts, in your Vol. 53, No. 1363, page 122, issue of 13th inst., imputes unwarranted mismanagement on the part of the electric street-railway officials in Keokuk, Iowa. From its contents, too, one might infer that the Thomson-Houston Electric Company made the only lightning-arrester on the market capable of protecting car-motor armatures or those of the dynamos at the station. Their arrester is an excellent one, but that there are others equally good I can testify from personal experience, having been on electric cars over and over again when they were struck, without any damage being done to apparatus or cars. These arresters can be purchased by the Iowa Company at any time.

It may be well to state that I have no connection, direct or otherwise, with any manufactures of electrical apparatus.

Yours truly, F. O.

August 19, 1891.

Notes.

LONGMANS, GREEN & Co. have nearly ready 'A School Atlas of English History,' edited by Mr. S. R. Gardiner as a companion to his 'Student's History of England.' It is more extensive in its scope than the British Isles, and in addition to the maps are plans of important battles and sieges. The same firm announces an English translation of the Memoirs of Baron de Marbot, of which our French correspondent has been giving an account. Their edition, which is to appear in the autumn, will be in two volumes, and will include the two volumes already issued in French, together with a third not yet published.

Mr. William Andrews of No. 1 Dock Street, Hull, England, author of 'Bygone Lincolnshire' and other antiquarian works, will issue to subscribers an illustrated 'Bygone Northamptonshire.'

T. Fisher Unwin's list of fall publications includes 'The Real Japan: Studies of Contemporary Japanese Manners, Morals, Administrations, and Politics,' by Henry Norman, with photographic illustrations; 'The Land of the Incas,' travels in Peru, by Blanche Clark, with illustrations; 'The Autobiography of an English Gamekeeper (John Wilkins of Stanstead, Essex),' edited by Arthur H. Byng and Stephen M. Stephens; 'Names, and Their Meaning,' by Leopold Wagner; 'Stammering: Its Nature and Treatment,' by Emil Behnke; 'Concerning Cats,' a book of verses, by many authors, edited by Graham R. Tomson; 'Hard Life in the Colonies,' edited by C. Carlyon Jenkins, and 'Kolokotrones: Klepht and Warrior,' from the Greek, by Mrs. Edmunds.

The Dunlap Society has tardily sent forth to its subscribers as its first volume for this year, and as the thirteenth of its series, a collection of *addresses, chiefly on theatrical subjects*, by Mr. William Winter. 'The Actor, and Other Speeches' contains a portrait of the author. Among the addresses, in the preparation of which Mr. Winter is seen at his best, are eulogies of Mr. Edwin Booth and of the late Lester Wallack and the late Henry Edwards. The most important oration is the first, on "The Actor and his Duty to his Time," delivered two years ago before the Actors' Fund Society at its annual meeting in New York.

'Lapsus Calami,' by "J. K. S.," is the title of a clever volume of English university verse, which has just reached a second edition (Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes). Its author is a son of Sir James Stephen. He is an inordinate admirer of the author of 'Fly-Leaves,' and the first poem in the book is "To C. S. C." Among the skits here collected, those of most general interest are "The Ballade of the Incompetent Ballade-Monger" (with the refrain "But I hope I have kept to the rules"), a set of equally amusing "Triolets Ollendorffiens," and a pair of poems on England and America—great countries both, with most objectionable citizens now and then.

Among the latest volumes of the cheap and comely Camelot Series (London: Walter Scott), is 'The Plays of Richard Brinsley Sheridan,' edited, with an introduction, by Rudolph Dircks. The editor wisely omits "The Camp," which Sheridan did not write, although it has been strangely included in not a few editions of his works. He also leaves out "The Relapse," which Sheridan altered from Vanbrugh. His introduction is a biography of Sheridan, brief and brisk, and better in manner than the most of the lives of Sheridan, who has suffered severely at the hands of bookmakers like Dr. Watkins and Mr. Percy Fitzgerald.

The second volume of Thorpe's three-volume 'Dictionary of Applied Chemistry' (Longmans) appears within a year after the issue of the first. Its 714 pages cover the ground from Eau de Cologne to Nux Vomica in a manner which amply fulfils the promise of the first volume. It is a thoroughly creditable and useful work, characterized by great accuracy and every evidence of careful editing. Of the thirty-three names given in the list of contributors to this volume, eighteen appear for the first time in connection with the Dictionary. No American

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chemists have as yet contributed to the work, although the announcement in the original preface led one to expect articles from some of our eminent specialists. Indeed, the work is thus far almost entirely the product of English hands, only two of the forty-nine contributors to the first two volumes being foreigners—Profs. Lunge of Zürich and Witt of Berlin. Some of the more important articles, with the names of the authors and the number of pages occupied by each, are: Explosives (34), by W. H. Deering; Fermentation (31), by P. F. Frankland; Coal Gas (35), by Lewis Wright; Glass (20), by W. Ramsay; Iron (14), by Thomas Turner; Lead (44), by P. P. Bedson; Matches (34), by E. G. Clayton; and Naphthalene (65), by W. P. Wynne.

A book which merits the attention of all who are interested in practical work in the chemical laboratory is the 'Anleitung zur Darstellung Chemischer Präparate,' by Dr. Hugo Erdmann. The author aims to do for inorganic chemistry what Levy, Fischer, and Cohen have already done for organic chemistry by their little volumes on chemical preparations. It contains directions for making more than eighty preparations, chiefly inorganic, including compounds of all the more common elements. A brief statement of the reactions involved, and directions for testing the products, follow in each instance the description of the process of making. The choice of preparations is varied and good. Inexpensive substances and laboratory residues and by-products are employed as far as possible; and the resulting preparations are mostly such as are constantly needed in laboratory work. All the methods which are given have been carefully proved in the university laboratory at Halle, where Dr. Erdmann has been for several years the assistant of Prof. Volhard.

The State University of Iowa has issued its 'Historical Monograph, No. 1,' being an account of the "Amana Society." This industrial and communistic organization had its rise in Germany, and its derivation and differentiation from mysticism and pietism are traced at much length in the pamphlet. Then follows the story of the migration to this country, the first settlement at "Ebenezer," near Buffalo, and the subsequent acquisition of the present site of the Society in Iowa. The constitution of the organization is printed in full, and the social and religious beliefs and practices of its simple-minded and worthy members are described sympathetically. No previous writing about these people has been so authoritative as this one, which is the work of Prof. Rufus Perkins and Mr. B. L. Wick, both of the State University.

The importance of the Platæan finds of the American School at Athens in 1889 and 1890 is receiving gratifying recognition. The Latin preamble of the Edict of Diocletian regulating prices throughout the Roman Empire, which was lately published by Professors Tarbell and Rolfe, has just been issued in a beautiful photographic facsimile by the London Palæographical Society (Facsimiles, Second Series, Nos. 127, 128). Prof. Mommsen has prepared an edition of the Greek fragment of the Edict, with English notes; it is now in press, and, with Dr. Lolling's careful facsimile, will appear in the next number of the *American Journal of Archæology*.

The Dante Society has lost its President in the late Mr. Lowell, but his name still leads the list of officers and of the Council in the tenth annual report just distributed. In this document we read of the awarding last year of a prize to Mr. Charles Sterrett Latham for a translation of the Letters of Dante, with an historical and critical comment, executed in a condition of paralysis which ended the life of this promising young scholar before the award could be made known to him. The translation will be printed. Three new topics are offered for the Dante prize of 1891-92. Appendixes to the report contain a list of additions to the Dante collection in the Harvard College Library, and a valuable reprint of Latin texts of documents concerning Dante's debts and his public life. The Harvard collection now exceeds 1,200 volumes, and, under certain restrictions, may be used by members of the Society remote from Cambridge, as well as by the public on the spot. It deserves, therefore, to be increased by gifts from every quarter of the country. The Secretary and Treasurer is Mr. George Rice Carpenter of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston.

Collectors of book-plates will be glad to learn that the English Ex-Libris Society has begun the publication of a monthly magazine of twenty broad pages devoted wholly to essays, correspondence, and notes concerning book-plates. The first number of the *Ex-Libris Journal* (London: A. & C. Black) bears date July, 1891, and contains a list of members of the Society. Apparently this periodical is intended to supplant the *Book-Plate Collector's Miscellany*. Announcement is made that future numbers will contain a bibliography of book-plates by Mr. J. R. Brown and Mr. H. W. Fincham.

The August number of the *Author*, the organ of the Incorporated Society of Authors, edited by Mr. Walter Besant, the founder and mainspring of the Society, contains a full report of the speeches made at the dinner given by the Society in London on July 16 to celebrate the accomplishment of international copyright between Great Britain and the United States. In the same number is also an announcement that an Authors' Club is about to be established in London, somewhat on the model of the club of the same name in New York, but on a far more ambitious scale.

The second paper of the series on "Britannic Confederation," which the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* is publishing, is by Prof. E. A. Freeman, who had given him for his subject "The Physical and Political Basis of National Unity." After a frank avowal that he is altogether opposed to Confederation, he dwells at some length on the meaning of the word Nation, defining the ideal nation as one "where a continuous territory is inhabited by a people united under one government, and all of them speaking the same language—a language which is not spoken by any other people." This ideal, however, is not attained by any people; Italy, perhaps, coming nearest to it. He then discusses the various schemes of federation, and, while acknowledging the theoretical possibility of all which exclude India, he shows that each of them has defects which would make them practically unworkable. If any scheme, however, should be set in action, he confidently asserts that sooner or later disunion would result. He closes, characteristically, with these words: "If it is proposed that the great and historic assembly which King Edward called into being in 1295 shall keep its six hundredth anniversary by sinking to the level of the Legislature of a Canton of a Britannic Confederation, then I shall be driven, however much against the grain, to turn Jingo and sing 'Rule Britannia.'"

Dr. Max Nordau, in the *Imperial and Asiatic Quarterly Review*, treats the partition of Africa by the European Powers within the past fifteen years as a veritable "Rabies Africana," an unaccountable epidemic. He is not wrong in saying that recently acquired African possessions have no money value as such to the respective governments, and that all commercial advantages could have been gained as readily without annexation as with. Nor can his assertion be denied that the general result of European intercourse with the negroes has been deleterious to them. But he injures the tone of his article, which contains nothing novel but its title, by dividing those who are interested in the development of Africa into two classes, hypocrites and cynics. He also takes no notice of the fact that Central Africa is fast being depopulated, and that the intervention of Europeans is the only possible check to the slave-hunters' raids.

To the August number of the *New Review*, Mr. Paul Bourget contributes an interesting paper on the element of love in fiction. In the same number Capt. Eyre M. Shaw, the head of the London Fire Brigade, has an article on theatrical fires, wherein he gives a list of those which occurred in 1890, somewhat shattering our belief in his accuracy by recording two slight fires in Paris at the Théâtre-Français and a third at the Comédie-Française! Capt. Shaw seems to be ill-informed as to American legislation for the prevention of fires in theatres, since he speaks of the Spanish law of 1888 as the first step towards a proper building law for theatres, ignoring the admirable (although doubtless not perfect) law of this State, under which five or six safe places of amusement have been erected in New York city. It is not the first time that the head of the London Fire Brigade has closed his eyes to what is going on in New York, although he has slowly adopted more than one of the devices which have approved themselves on this side of the ocean.

In his Providence *Book Notes* of August 15, Mr. S. S. Rider adds a few more sprigs of laurel to the wreath on Roger Williams's brow. He shows how Massachusetts owed to the diplomacy of her exiled son her escape from an overwhelming combination of hostile tribes, at the time of the Pequot war. This is not denied by many historians of Massachusetts, who still do not bring it out in its "real light," Mr. Rider thinks, while its deliberate suppression by Hubbard and Hutchinson "makes a lie of history." It was Williams, too, who devised and communicated to Gov. Winthrop the plan of attack on the Pequots which was adopted with such success, and of which "the credit has been given wholly to others." Another point concerning which "all writers are silent" is Williams's prevention of an Indian alliance against the colonies for forty years after the Pequot war; when the alliance was at last brought about under King Philip, the English were strong enough to sustain a shock that might have been fatal at an earlier date.

—The Salem (Mass.) Press Publishing and Printing Co. has just issued a second series of notes and additions by Mr. John J. Babson to his valuable 'History of Gloucester'—186 pages, including the index. A third of the contents consists of extracts from the diary of the Rev. Samuel Chandler, from 1751 to 1764, which supplies no little entertainment, along with much genealogical information. This clergyman was "pretty much not well" (as he phrased it) a good deal of the time, particularly in the year first named, when for his fever and ague he was, on September 11, "taking cortex peruvianus" in red wine every three hours. On the 27th he was so far convalescent that he "supd at Lieut. Collin's on Stewed Goose and Roast Duck"; on the 29th he "preached, had gt freedom and enlargement

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of heart"; but on the 5th of October he had another ague fit, "fainted & fell down." In September, 1759, he left his sick-bed to pray with the family of a dying parishioner, and fainted away in the act. His call to the parish was decided in this way: "they voted by walking; those that were for me were desired to walk east, wh were 59 or 60; those opposed to walk west, which were 2; and 7 or 8 sat still." Mr. Chandler notes the preaching at Gloucester of "Mr. Whitfield" on October 29, 1754, and his is the only record of this incident. An entry of April 23, 1755, shows the diarist's miscellaneous engagements: "Dined at Dr. Rea's; an entertainment at the weaning of a child; wrote a letter to a deist; planted cucumbers." And there is a glimpse of Satan at work in this entry: "April 30 [1756]. I visited Mrs. Collins, tempted; and Mrs. Paterson, bereaved of her mother, Mrs. Cradock, who has for some months been in distress of mind, and despairing, tempted, and assaulted; and last Saturday, about one o'clock, she hanged herself with a single strand of fishing-line." Earthquakes are frequently noted, and by May 8, 1756, the news of the Lisbon catastrophe of November 1, 1755, had reached Massachusetts, so that a thanksgiving was observed, all the more because "New England was spared in a very great shock which shook off Chimney Tops and wares from shelves."

—Mr. A. L. Mayhew's 'Synopsis of Old English Phonology,' just published in the Clarendon Press Series (Macmillan), is a book that represents a great deal of patient and well-directed labor. The author, whose previous work had well prepared him for such an undertaking, has given us, in less than 200 pages, a comprehensive summary of the established facts concerning the relation of West-Saxon sounds to those of cognate languages and of the original "Indogermanic." Unlike Sweet's 'History of English Sounds,' the 'Synopsis' contains no discussion either of general phonetics or of phonetic change, and no attempt to fill in the gap between Old and Modern English. Furthermore, Mr. Mayhew offers us no new facts or theories; his aim has been merely to collect the results of the best German and English scholarship in the field that he has chosen. Almost every statement is accompanied by a reference to a special authority. Among the many names cited, those of most frequent occurrence are Sievers, Sweet, Kluge, and Brugmann. Two long tables, somewhat similar to those in Sweet's 'History,' enable the reader to find the modern equivalents of old English words and sounds, and *vice versa*. There is, moreover, at the back of the book an "Index of Words," comprising sixty-seven pages. The whole volume is clearly and beautifully printed.

—The lecture on 'Aristotle on the Art of Poetry' read last winter before the Alexandrian and Philosophical Clubs of the University of Glasgow by A. O. Prickard of Oxford, and lately printed (Macmillan), commends itself to all lovers of what is best in literature as well as to students of Aristotle's writings. It well fulfils its purpose of giving a plain account of Aristotle's chief judgments on the poetical literature known to him, and of indicating among these such as are of lasting value and application. Difficult places are clearly explained, and many of Aristotle's dicta are defended, always with acumen and appreciation. Especially deserving of mention are Mr. Prickard's treatment of the famous definition of Tragedy, and his analysis of the principle of Katharsis there included, wherein the lines laid down by Bernays are followed. The wealth of apt citations in prose and verse, drawn from recent writers of the utmost variety, not only lends brilliancy to the lecturer's discourse, but serves well to impress upon one how modern, because perennially true, is much of the great master's thought. In these days of the popularity of cheap interpretations and misinterpretations of ancient life and literature, it is a refreshment to come across a scholar who gives the evidence we find in Mr. Prickard of that happy union of careful learning, delicate taste, sympathetic insight, and grasp of principles which is absolutely essential for the performance of the task of seeing and showing things exactly as they are—at once the most difficult and the most imperative of the duties of the scholar.

—Canon Cheyne, in 'The Origin and Religious Contents of the Psalter' (Bampton Lectures for 1889; New York: Thomas Whittaker), brings the Psalms under the light of historical, and only secondarily under that of linguistic criticism, and accordingly finds them to be largely exilic and post-exilic. Archaic forms (in language) could not fail to be reproduced by later poets, who constantly recited the ancient documents, and this accounts for much of the Davidic style, while Aramaic forms which appear throughout could not well have appeared in pre-exile literature, and the historical characteristics point to the exile and post-exile period, most largely to the Maccabæan. This last great epoch must surely have produced some psalms, and many of them have survived to us in the Psalter. The most striking characteristic (because the newest) in these lectures places Canon Cheyne in advance of contemporaneous English exegetics. No one in England has anticipated him in the closer application of Zoroastrianism to the subject. Astonishing as it may seem, while scholars in England have talked for a decade about the importance of Assyriology to Biblical criticism, no one seems to have become aware of the necessity of the Zend Avesta to it. Canon Cheyne justly says that no one should be regarded for the future as a competent critic in the Old and New Testaments who does not study that one religion which, whether as teacher or taught, stands more closely related to the Holy Scriptures than any other. With book after book of the Bible dating from Persian reigns, with a Persian restorer, Cyrus, "the Lord's anointed," with Persian names, and with the literal mention (in the Apocrypha) of an Avesta demon, Asmodeus (Aêshma-daeva), with the Magi and Simon Magus, with the seven spirits (the seven Amshaspands), etc., it is no wonder if Zoroastrianism stalks through the Bible. The doctrine of God and Satan, of the creation of clean and unclean (the uncleanness here gets its first explanation: "The unclean animals were such because the Evil Spirit made them"), of angels, of immortality, of resurrection, notably of judgment, of rewards in heaven or on a restored earth, and punishments in hell, with other features too startling to be mentioned here, identify the Persian theology in many essential features with the Jewish, whether as original or derivative, and Canon Cheyne holds that the Persian was largely the original used by the Divine Spirit as the human instrumentality in imparting the ideas. Canon Cheyne disclaims special Zend studies, but he practises his usual thoroughness in the use of materials, having examined the views of all parties and schools, and relying, as is natural, with confidence on the Oxford Avesta (in the "Sacred Books of the East"), by Prof. Darmesteter and Dr. Mills.

—If ordinarily we do not look to the sodality of the Society of Jesus for anything revolutionary in religion, *a fortiori* we do not in science. In point of fact, scientific progress of the modern type is usually remarked in almost every other quarter. But the unsafe nature of such generalizations is apparent from the fact that recent days have brought to light a discovery, or invention rather, which two reverend fathers of this Society residing in Georgetown have been the first to develop in successful form, and which bids fair to revolutionize that important art of the astronomer known as "taking transits." The tediousness and in some sense unsatisfactory character of this operation are now greatly mitigated by means of a little telescopic accessory which they call the "photochronograph"—a rather unfortunate designation, as this word was originally coined years ago, and is already applied to another and entirely different apparatus. This need not hinder the effectiveness of the instrument, however, as it will doubtless do its work faithfully until a new name can be found for it. In short, it seems to be capable of freeing a large class of astronomical and physical research from the uncertain influence of "personal equation"—that dread and often indeterminable element which always lurks in observational work—where high precision is aimed at. Some novel adjunct of the standard equipment of laboratory and observatory whereby transits could be recorded with a simple, photographic automaton has long been sought by English and German scientists; but American astronomers, who nearly a half-century ago invented and first applied the chronograph to this sort of work, greatly increasing the ease and rapidity of doing it, are again to the front with the first published results of star-transits taken by photography. It should be said that the original experiments in this direction were conducted at the Harvard College Observatory by Prof. Pickering.

—A correspondent writes to us from Munich:

"Press paragraphs cleverly managed by a certain group of Americans in Paris, and the widely notorious refusal, based on political grounds, of French artists to exhibit, have made the International Art Exhibition in Berlin seem the most prominent held out of France this year. But really of more artistic interest is the Jahres-Austellung in Munich, to which all the best men from all countries, except America, have sent their most important work. However, it is just now chiefly notable for the fact that the French, despite their patriotic scruples, have contributed to it. It is not easy to explain how this has been managed. Whether the public stand they took when invited to contribute to the Berlin exhibition satisfied their consciences, or whether individual Frenchmen are not responsible for the present show in Munich, and this is due to enterprising art-dealers or Government authorities, is an open question. The French artist cannot, after all, be blamed for his seeming childishness in this matter. It is difficult in England or America to realize how dependent he is upon the State for recognition and advancement. To take one conspicuous instance: Puvis de Chavannes has received all his most important commissions from, and executed his finest designs for, State and municipal authorities. How could he, then, afford to fly in the face of public opinion, whatever might be his own feelings and sympathies? But, as if to make up for their absence from Berlin, the French are delightfully represented at Munich, even Corots, Daubignys, Troyons, and Millets being included in the collection, as well as several fine Manets and less noteworthy Claude Monets which one has not the chance to see every day. The rest of their exhibit is made up of the principal pictures seen in the later Salons. Puvis de Chavannes, Gérôme, Besnard, Bonnat, Billotte, Montenard, Carolus Duran—in a word, all the leading French painters, contribute. The other striking features of the exhibition are the good showing made by the Eng-

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lish, thanks really to the younger Scotchmen, who are so little appreciated at home and who so seldom receive a fair chance in the London galleries; and the new proof given of the artistic strength of the Scandinavians, who, owing greatly to the marvellous display of Kroyer and Thaulow, seem even more vigorous here than in Berlin. It would be a great pity were not every effort used to induce the Danes to exhibit in the coming World's Fair in Chicago. With the exception of the French, their work has more character than that of the artists of any other nationality. The Americans practically are unrepresented. The Salon pictures of Dannat, MacEwen, and Charles Sprague Pearce are hung with the French. Whistler exhibits with the English. A cattle piece by Bisbing is in one German room; "In the Dunes," by Melchers, in a second. Others, notably Carl Marr, are scattered here and there, but they are absorbed in the groups with which they have chosen to classify themselves."

HELPS TO READERS AND STUDENTS.

The Best Books: A Reader's Guide to the Choice of the Best Available Books (about 50,000) in every Department of Science, Art, and Literature. By William Swan Sonnenschein. 2d edition. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891. 4to, pp. (18), vii-cx, 1009.

A Guide Book to Books. Edited by E. B. Sargant and Bernhard Whishaw. London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp xvi, 344.

A Guide to the Choice of Books; for Students and General Readers Edited by Arthur H. D. Acland, M.P. London: Edward Stanford. 1891. 8vo, pp. xviii, 128.

THE three volumes above mentioned have successively made their appearance, in the order named, since the beginning of the present year, the first in the list being, however, a second and enlarged edition of a work issued in 1887. The most modest of the three is Mr. Acland's, a thin octavo, easily held in one hand, descending to no gradations of type smaller than brevier, equipped not only with an alphabetical index at the end, but with a table of classification at the beginning, which is well discriminated and effectively displayed. His plan is one of extreme condensation, whether in citing publisher or author and title, but is consistently carried through the book, and with noticeably few misprints; while the taste and judgment shown, in what is mentioned and what omitted, make the volume a singularly successful one, in its aim as a "guide to the choice of books."

In their considerably larger volume, Messrs. Sargant and Whishaw offer us what is avowedly a coöperative work; and in their list of more than 175 coöperators there are not a few names which carry decided weight. Thus we have good reason for satisfaction in what is here offered us by such men as Sir George Grove and Mr. J. Norman Lockyer, in their respective departments, as well as by the competent hand from whom we have the excellent list under "France: Language and Literature." For some of the other departments not so much can be said—in fact, the book's unevenness is its most striking characteristic; nor, indeed, for the work of the editors themselves. Among the eccentricities of their procedure is the disregard of titles of nobility of all kinds. Thus, the late Earl of Iddesleigh is simply and only "Northcote, S.", and Sir Henry Thompson always "Thompson, H." While the entries are in most particulars unabridged, as regards full name and imprint, for some unassignable reason dates are not regarded as important. A reader looking for a work on bridges finds therefore Haupt, on 'Bridge Construction,' but without the slightest intimation that it is now about forty years out of date; and on a subject where timeliness is a ruling consideration, as Africa, one might pass entirely by White's 'The Development of Africa,' although it has been published within the present year. Indeed, from language used on p. 285, it would appear that a book published in 1850 is only "a trifle out of date."

Mr. Sonnenschein's volume, which also describes itself as a "guide," is not open to the exceptions just noted. Nor does he share the error of Messrs. Sargant and Whishaw in supposing the entry of one only out of several page-numbers to be sufficient as an index-reference; nor the kindred error of making an index-reference to consist of page-numbers and nothing more. In order to cite the titles within sufficiently short compass, abbreviations are very largely employed, but with real skill and entire adequacy; and, consequently, a reader looking for one only of the nearly fifty book-titles under Professor Freeman's name is not led on a wild-goose chase through every part of the volume. In short, Mr. Sonnenschein apparently regards the relation of a key to a lock as no more essential than that of a good index to a work of this kind. His "Author and Titles Index," occupying nearly eighty four-column quarto pages, in closely printed type, is followed by a "Subjects Index," covering twenty-three pages more. From the present edition, however, he has omitted the separately printed skeleton of classification, or "Synopsis of Contents," which occupied thirty-six pages in the edition of 1887. Pressing as must have been the need of economizing space, there is very much in the present book which the reader could have spared with much better grace than this "Synopsis."

For, to speak plainly, the fundamental defect of the present edition is its over-inclusiveness. Not only was the 1887 edition far wider in compass than the earlier compilations of Perkins, Jones, and others, as well as those of Acland and Sargant mentioned above, but the difference between the two editions themselves is scarcely less striking. Over against the less than 750 pages in 1887 are the more than 1,100 pages in 1891, of larger size and in smaller type. But, far more to be regretted, in place of aiming "to select as carefully as possible what is essential, and to omit all the remainder"—to quote from one of the writers above cited—we find a sifting process with meshes so coarse as to admit into this select company of "best books" such works as 'Every Man's Own Lawyer' and 'Man and His Maladies,' such astounding achievements in biography as those of Blanche Roosevelt and Miss McCray, and in science as a volume on 'Moses and Geology,' of which the editor frankly tells us: "Its science is almost peculiar to itself"; the 'Monday Lectures' of Joseph Cook, and Clews's 'Twenty-eight Years in Wall Street.' When, moreover, one reflects that, while the earlier edition found space to mention only about 25,000 volumes, the present one pours out a torrent of about 50,000, the reader can be pardoned for feeling surprise that there are so many "best books."

"The best books" must indeed be considered by far the least felicitous portion of the book's title, suggesting in somewhat painful contrast the 'Best Hundred Books' of Sir John Lubbock and his fellow-critics. But the book is also described on the title-page as "a contribution towards systematic bibliography"; and the scale on which the work is planned is such as would tend inevitably to supply welcome assistance, as well as information, to the reader or student who uses it. Yet it would almost seem as if, with the expansion of the book itself, had expanded its opportunities for conveying the most varied misinformation, typical instances of which we shall briefly notice. For one thing, we are far from sharing in Mr. Sonnenschein's somewhat too generous commendation of what he calls the "substantial accuracy" of his printers, for few books have ever been more studded with glaring misprints. Some of these, as "Cornstock" (Comstock), are grotesque; others, as "Salvigny" (Savigny), "Maddison" (Madison), "Lesquereuse" (Lesquereux), are annoying; others, again, as "MacLellan" (J. F. MacLennan), are distinctly misleading. Others indicate an almost ingenious perversity, in distorting, for instance, Mr. G. E. Woodberry's name into "Woodbury" in the 1887 edition, and into "Woodbery" in the 1891 edition; and in printing the Cornell philologist's name three times as B. T. Wheeler, twice as B. J. Wheeler, and only once in the correct form, B. I. Wheeler. And yet we do not feel warranted in putting the entire blame upon the printer, for there are certain specific forms of misprint which occur with such regularity as to command attention, namely, the repeated substitution of one initial for another. Thus, an American general's name appears as "J. B." McClellan instead of G. B. McClellan, in every instance, and in both editions of the work; and confusions of an analogous order occur in the case of C and G, J and I (no less than seven times), F and T, and others. The reader is puzzled also by certain extremely deceptive transpositions. Who, for instance, will readily recognize the name of Dr. Howe, the philanthropist, in the distorted form, "Howe, G. S."? The reader who should send for "J. Farley Lewis's" work on 'New Bulgaria,' on the strength of Mr. Sonnenschein's entry (p. 340), might repeat his order many times before learning that the true name is J. Lewis Farley. In the index, where, of all places, the proof-reading should be accurate, misprints have been allowed to create an uncomfortably large number of false references to page-numbers. In the use of accents, diacritical marks, etc., the book is sadly disfigured, not only with such instances of omissions as "Plante" and "Friedlander," but of superfluities, as "Seguïn" and "Schürman," (and, in the index, "Müllin" and "Tholück"), and of mistakes as "Gayarrè" (p. 450). To give the printer his due, it is entirely probable that he is responsible for such fastastic work with the name "Adam" as in presenting the name of the abbot of Evesham as "Adam Abbott of Evesham," (p. 410), that of Adm. Parry of the British Navy, as "Parry, Adam Sir W. E." (p. lx), and that of Henry Adams, as "Adam, H." (p. 406). To heighten the puzzle, there is a certain ingenious device of the editor, with a view to economizing space, whereby, in the index, all punctuation is invariably omitted between the author's entry and the book-title immediately following. Whether to be able to master such a perplexing sequence as, for instance, "Argyll, Duke of *Primev. Man*" (p. ix), is really worth the expenditure of nervous energy required, may be seriously questioned. Another of the editor's "economies" is the expression of joint authorship by a cumbrous use of mathematical symbols, sometimes in such a form as "Stewart + Tait, Prfs. B. + P. G." (p. 115); sometimes in even more involved form. As no space is saved in the "Stewart" instance, above, it is difficult to see what is gained, beyond the reader's bewilderment; but it is doubtless owing to this bad habit asserting itself in the wrong place that the name of the Innsbruck

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political economist is printed as if it were that of two persons, "Böhm + Bauerk, Prf." (p. 239).

In the entry of proper names, abbreviations such as "Dr.," "Rev.," "Prf.," "Adm.," etc., are repeatedly employed to indicate the person's position in life; "Am.," "Austral.," etc., his nationality; "C. E.," "R. C.," "Unit.," etc., his religious belief; and surely for such help towards identification or discrimination one ought to be duly grateful, were it not that these also are made additional agencies of misinformation. Thus the erroneous label "Am." is affixed to such names as Dr. Charles Taylor of St. John's College, Cambridge, and Lawrence B. Phillips, compiler of the biographical dictionary; numerous misapplications of the ecclesiastical abbreviations occur, as in the cases of Dr. William Carey and Dr. William Jenks, where they are exactly exchanged; and that of "Rev." precedes the names of men never entitled to it and never claiming it, as in "Murray, Rev. T. C.," and "Thompson, Rev. R. W." If the nature of the work cited in the two instances just mentioned be considered, the bestowing of the epithet would seem to be a purely inferential "guess" based thereon. Precisely the same sort of unwarranted inference appears to have been exercised in Mr. Sonnenschein's author-entry of 'A College Fetich,' the writer of which, it is to be feared, will regard his labor as all in vain if he is to be known as "*Adams, Prf. C. F.*" (p. 292). Only an exceptional ingenuity could make possible the entry of Mr. and Mrs. Thwing's joint work, 'The Family,' in which the Christian name of the latter, "Carrie," becomes a separate surname (p. 389). The sexes are still further confused in making (Miss) E. A. Youmans the author of a volume properly entered under (Mr.) E. L. Youmans as editor, namely, 'The Culture Demanded by Modern Life'; but still more in the entry, "Sweetser, *Mrs.* M. F.," as the author of the series of 'Artist Biographies.' Yet even this does not quite reach the absurdity of the entries in the index, under "Preston H. W.," making the feminine author of 'Troubadours and Trouvères' (*Miss* Harriet W. Preston) identical with Mr. Howard W. Preston.

A well-known penchant of our English cousins for taking "a part for the whole," in citing proper names, often leads them to extend this treatment to others than Englishmen —as when "Mr. Cabot Lodge" is cited in the *Saturday Review* of the current summer. So also, in the pages of Mr. Sonnenschein's volume, one finds "Hunt, Wm.," instead of the more extended name, in the case of a well-known American and artist. But, unfortunately for the reader, Mr. Sonnenschein has in many cases abandoned uniformity as well as fulness. Thus, on one page, "Siemens, Sir W.," and, on another, "Siemens, Sir C. Wm.," refer to the same person, as do also "Thompson, Prf. Silvanus," and "Thompson, Prf. Silv. P." To the reader, who has not always the means of discriminating between cases like the above and others where no identity exists — as "Mayor, Prf. J. B." (of King's College, London), and "Mayor, Prf. J. E. B." (of the University of Cambridge)—such a practice is necessarily confusing. So it appears to have proved in a strikingly large number of cases to Mr. Sonnenschein himself, thus corroborating in an unexpected manner the not wholly unreasonable preference of a cataloguer for fulness and uniformity. Thus, two of Mr. Charles Wyllys Elliott's works having been cited in the text—neither of them under the full name —the list of Elliotts in the index gives us one of these under "Elliott, C.," and the other under "Elliott, W.," both having been mechanically reproduced from the body of the book, which has no entry "Elliott, C. W." So mechanically, indeed, have the names been alphabeted in the index that a well-known American orator having appeared once in the text as "Webster, Dan.," and again as "Webster, D.," reappears in these two forms in the index as two persons. An American cataloguer might perhaps have stumbled naturally into entering "Ball, R. S.," and "Ball, Sir R. S.," as two distinct persons, through not having heard of the astronomer's knighthood; but that the distinguished achievements of Sir A. H. Layard should not have availed to prevent an English cataloguer from breaking him up into two, "Layard, A. H.," and "Layard, Sir Henry" (*page xlviii*), is indeed cause for wonder. After this instance of the prophet without honor in his own country, it is not so easy to feel surprise at finding the two Americans, John H. Allen and Joseph H. Allen, made one, under the heading "Allen, J. H.," nor even at finding three persons made one, under "Brown, Dr. John," though one of the three is James, and not "John"; nor at the editor's failing to distinguish between the two American writers, John Bartlett and John R. Bartlett, in attributing the dictionary of 'Familiar Quotations' to the latter. But the limit of incongruity is perhaps reached when the indexer places in the list of Phillips Brooks's writings a speech on the occasion of the Sumner assault, by Preston S. Brooks of South Carolina. Kinship is a fruitful source of danger, where a cataloguer is no more cautious than Mr. Sonnenschein, who not only enters O. W. B. Peabody's Life of Israel Putnam under W. B. O. Peabody (a brother), the writings of Samuel A. Drake under Samuel G. Drake (his father), but also volunteers the gratuitous misinformation that Mrs. Elizabeth C. Agassiz, instead of being the wife of Louis Agassiz, is "Mrs. A. Agassiz" (page 517), and that George Washington Greene is son (rather than grandson) of Gen. Greene (p. 461). In both text and index, the 'Essay on the History of English Church Architecture,' by George Gilbert Scott, the younger, published in 1881, is made his father's work, regardless of the fact that the latter died in 1878. The distinction of "Jr." and "Sen.," in fact, is one to which Mr. Sonnenschein appears to have surrendered at sight; and where he has to do with the "hereditary names," as they may perhaps be called, of Josiah Quincy, Charles Francis Adams, Richard Henry Dana, and Theophilus Parsons, he has achieved some glaring confusion of identity under each one, in the last-named instance making one man into three.

A very natural hesitation to point out omissions needing to be remedied is inevitable, in view of the over-inclusiveness which does so much to vitiate the book, yet the list of omitted titles which must occur to almost every reader is neither brief nor unessential. Nor are they confined to Continental publications, such as Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte,' nor to those of this country, as Hannis Taylor's 'English Constitution,' but comprise English publications in every department, from Poole's 'Ecclesiastical Architecture in England' to 'Mackay of Uganda.' When one remembers that it is chiefly an English-reading constituency to which the work addresses itself, it is surprising to find Legouvé's 'L'Art de Lecture' cited in the French original only, with no mention of either of the two English translations (1879). It is a real pleasure to be able to speak emphatically of the service rendered the reader by the numerous instances where analysis has laid open the contents of a composite book; but to do this twice for the same book—*e. g.*, Evelyn Abbott's 'Hellenica,' pages 394 and 872—is assuredly an error when the space is needed for so much else.

All the books under notice purport to be "guides to the choice of books." The purpose avowed by one of the editors in his preface—namely, to be serviceable "to the committees of the smaller free libraries, to the educational departments of workingmen's" (and other) societies, etc.—is doubtless shared also by Mr. Sonnenschein, who, in his preface, expresses the still more definite hope that his volume will be accepted by public libraries, in both England and America, as supplying "the best general catalogue." It has not been a pleasant task to point out—by typical instances only, for a simple enumeration of every specific instance would require many pages—the widely various ways in which this ambitious design falls short of even the more modest function of a trustworthy "guide." We find it easy to agree with Mr. Sonnenschein's declaration, in his preface, that it was an error to undertake the single-handed performance of a work like this; for not since Leibnitz, to paraphrase the pregnant words of one of the soundest thinkers of our time, has it been possible for one man to drive *all* the sciences abreast. However, if such a work were to be undertaken by any one man, it is difficult to conceive of a situation more favorable, and conditions more auspicious, than those under which Mr. Sonnenschein has prosecuted it — in London, at the centre of things, having at his command not only the great libraries, but the wealth of trade bibliography in the offices of the great publishing-houses. Nor can we regard it as otherwise than discouraging in the extreme that so signal an opportunity as that of revising the 1887 edition for the present one should have been so ill improved. Certain errors of the first edition were, indeed, corrected—such as the erroneous interpretation of the pseudonym, "Olphar Hamst"—but far too large a number of the worst of them are brought bodily over to the present edition (witness the entry, under "Argentine Republic," of Hayes's 'New Colorado'), while, more melancholy still, an extraordinary heedlessness has disfigured with every variety of error, in 1891, a long list of entries which were correctly printed in 1887—"St. Columbia," for example, for "St. Columba" (p. lv). There is, in fact, no sound basis for supposing that anything better than this will appear for some time to come to serve as a "general catalogue" of literature, and accordingly this "guide" will in all probability be put to that use in many libraries. Those who consult it, accordingly, should be warned that without thorough and laborious marginal corrections it is sure to prove but "a blind guide."

Ein Jahr Meines Lebens, 1848-1849. Von Alexander, Grafen von Hübner. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus. 1891. 8vo, pp. xii., 379.

COUNT HÜBNER is one of the distinguished band of diplomats and soldiers whose patriotic exertions have barely sufficed to save the Austrian Empire from extinction during the political and military crises which have convulsed the European continent for the past half-century. From 1849 to 1859 he filled the difficult post of Minister to France, and it was to him that Louis Napoleon made the famous New Year's speech which was generally accepted as an informal declaration of the war of 1859. He is now in his eightieth year, but apparently in the enjoyment of great intel-

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lectual vigor. It is, indeed, worthy of note that so many of the great men who were with him in the service of Austria attained an extreme old age. To mention only a few prominent ones: Count Joachim von Münch-Bellinghausen, who for twenty-five successive years presided over the German Diet as representative of Austria, died in 1866 at the age of ninety; Field-Marshal Radetzky, who conducted the victorious Italian campaign of 1848 at the age of eighty-two, lived to be ninety-two; Prince Metternich was eighty-six when he died, in 1859; Gen. Clam-Gallas attained his eighty-fifth year in 1890; Gen. von Wallmoden, in 1812 a British General, but back in the Austrian Army after 1815, died in 1862, aged ninety-three; Field-Marshal Nugent Westmeath, an Irishman by birth, and also for a time in the English Army, took part in the battle of Solferino at the age of eighty-two and lived for three years after; Wessenberg, who was Minister for Foreign Affairs during the critical period from May to November, 1848, was eighty-five when he died, in 1858. This list could be greatly extended by adding the names of such comparative youngsters as were cut off just before reaching the age of eighty. The number of those who served against Napoleon I. and lived to serve again against Napoleon III., is sufficiently large to put us on our guard against the hasty generalizations of some recent writers on the increasing longevity of the race. What is true of a new and comparatively poor country may be quite the reverse when applied to a community which for centuries has possessed inherited wealth and culture. And while early retirement from public service may be the rule in republics, it is not so in monarchies. On a smaller scale a similar phenomenon is found in the fact that among us a greater number of veterans is employed in private establishments and corporations than in our civil service. An intelligent employer, whose own interest is at stake, will always give the preference to an old employee over a new one; an office-holder, who is himself only a passenger, as it were, will take care of his friends and let the service take care of itself.

Like several other Austrian magnates, Hübner has a decided taste and talent for literature. He has published a number of books, the best known of which are a 'Journey around the World' and a Life of Sixtus IV. Like most German diplomats and statesmen, he writes a much more agreeable and readable style than the professional and professorial German men of letters. It is curious, however, that instead of *Januar*, he writes *Jänner*, an exclusively Austrian locution; but this is about the only trace of dialect in the book before us, which, as its name indicates, is the diary of a year, or, more precisely, of thirteen months, from February 18, 1848, to March 19, 1849. An allowance of 379 pages for 395 days seems liberal indeed, and one shudders to think what the history of the world would be if executed on as ample a scale; but the book is not merely a diary—many pages are filled with reflections on public affairs. The author has the courage and the candor to print now the opinions which he entertained then, and many of which, although comparatively very liberal in view of the time, the country, and the surroundings in which he had been reared, have been utterly confuted by subsequent events. For instance, it was quite natural for him to believe that there could never be a united Italy, and that the Pope could not be shorn of his temporal power without impairing his authority as head of the Church. That he confesses these opinions, now that the events which he regarded as impossible have become accomplished, is, of course, only to his credit.

His diary is divided into two parts. The first deals with his residence in Milan, where for 106 days he was held as a hostage by the insurgents, though, apart from the detention itself, not put to serious inconvenience except when, for a brief space, he was exposed to the fury of a street mob. He entertains a high opinion of the native urbanity and kind-heartedness of the Italians, not excluding those of the lower classes, and intimates that their bark is worse than their bite. He says that while, on paper, they shed Austrian blood as if it were water, in practice they were much less cruel, and, in their intercourse with the hostages and with other subjects of the Emperor, were always polite and considerate. The following passage may serve as an exposition of his sentiments and also as a specimen of his style:

"I love Italy, and I also love the Italians. Among their many excellent qualities, I esteem particularly their facility of apprehension, and, what there is no German word for, their urbanity. The former continually strikes me, whether in intercourse with the higher circles, or with the middle class, or with the common people. To speak only of these last, let me assume the case of a traveller who speaks but imperfectly the language of the country in which he is sojourning. A German will laugh at his mistakes, a Frenchman will correct them, an Englishman is disconcerted, colors, utterly fails to understand, and walks off. The Italian guesses, if he does not understand, what the foreigner means, and, in order to make himself understood, speaks with his fingers, hands, arms, and, a born mimic, with his face—all with the utmost good-will and the politest manner. For the Italian not only apprehends with ease, but he possesses another gift—urbanity. This virtue is not to be confounded with civility. Civility is acquired by education, and is, therefore, more or less the privilege of the well-bred. Urbanity is inborn, or, rather, it is the inheritance of antiquity, handed down from generation to generation; in the course of centuries it has abandoned its exclusiveness and become the common property of the nation. Civility wishes to please, urbanity fears to displease. Nothing is more repugnant to it than the possibility of annoying one's fellow-man; or, still worse, of wounding his feelings. Civility facilitates intercourse among men, urbanity makes it pleasant and safe — safe in the sense that one never has to fear an offensive word. Foreigners who occasionally find that words do not correspond with actions accuse the Italians of insincerity. This is an error. They avoid touching disagreeable subjects, and, when that is impossible, assume that their obliging phrases will not be taken for more than they are—a polite way of preserving intact the questioned or disputed subject. From whatever point of view, one regards Rome and Italy, in them is the cradle, and in the Italian the first-born son, of civilization."

The second part of the diary, dealing with the exciting events in Vienna in the autumn of 1848, possesses greater historical interest than the first. Hübner was directly instrumental in bringing Prince Felix Schwarzenberg from Milan to Vienna, where the latter soon took the reins of government into his hands, and, by his genius and energy, contributed in no inconsiderable degree to save the monarchy. Hübner served as his right hand, and composed all the proclamations, diplomatic communications, and other public documents which the political situation evoked. He was necessarily brought into intimate contact with the most important actors on the public stage, and his book abounds in striking characterizations of generals and statesmen, as well as of some leaders of the revolution; and there are not wanting skilful descriptions of stirring scenes.

William Wordsworth. By Elizabeth Wordsworth, Principal of Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford. London: Percival & Co. 1891.

It is inevitable that some scepticism should mingle with the pleasurable anticipation with which one approaches a fresh literary portrait of a poet who has challenged the best efforts at portraiture of more than one generation of writers. This latest attempt at making permanent still another impression of the mild yet august personality of Wordsworth justifies almost equally the scepticism and the anticipation. Miss Wordsworth is one of the few persons living who can remember, not the poet himself, but the wife who outlived him by almost a decade. She has listened to reminiscences of the thrifty habits of the most homely of men of genius from the lips of an old retainer, and has had access to some intimate family letters not published in memoirs or lives. But she must not, for these reasons, be supposed to lean too much to the side of the familiar or the trivial. Nor, on the other hand, does she represent her immortal relative solely by the pure light and "perfect witness" of his genius. "It may be mentioned," she writes, "that this [Dorothy Wordsworth's] journal is full of allusions to William's being 'ill,' 'tired,' and the like. . . . The task of composition seems to have been frequently attended with physical discomfort and uneasiness, and especially to have affected his sleep, as his poems themselves show." Yet these were the really vital moments of his life. What puts him among the immortals is the "visionary gleam" that came when he was lifted, by a power he could not command, above the usual even tenor of his way, when the mood fell for which he could not arrange in plans for poems in parts and books, and from which he came back "trailing clouds of glory" over the ordinary level of his verse.

Patiently and appreciatively as Miss Wordsworth has studied his poetry, and interesting as much of her criticism is, it is, on the whole, less the poetry than the man as seen through it that most completely fills the measure of her confidence and security. "The vision in the temple is made real to our minds by the fact that the prophet has shown his sincerity and trustworthiness in matters of which we ourselves can judge." Throughout his long life of eighty years, he gave rise to no need for the apologists who have been found for the lives of less serenely balanced poets. Of the theme of his exemplary virtues his grandniece does not weary: "The heart, though deeply, very deeply, stirred, is always controlled by the masculine will." In brief, he loved his sister, his wife, his children, the liturgy of the Church, and the "Authorized Version." His parochial duties, also, were not left undone; and finally Miss Wordsworth writes: "How one would like to have seen him being drilled" in a Grasmere volunteer corps!

If Miss Wordsworth has not found a new valuation for the poet whose work stands most in need of anthologies and selections, she has given between the lines, without the least undue use of the personal pronoun, a distinct and delightful impression of her relation to the young Oxonians (if the term may be applied to the sex) of the Hall of which she is the head. Her pages more than hint her keen sympathy with the readings of Plato, the studies in classic poetry, the eager search for English equivalents for difficult passages, and with the rest of the burning questions of "term-time." They show also a broad and liberal culture that extends beyond the palmy days of Grasmere and Rydal Mount.

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Evolution of the Ordinance of 1787, with an Account of the Earlier Plans for the Government of the Northwest Territory. By Jay A. Barrett, M.A. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

THIS book is the first fruit of the Historical *Seminar* in the University of Nebraska. It is a very painstaking performance, and the author, without having had access to original sources, has worked over, in a thorough and independent way, nearly all the existing materials on the subject of his study. Adhering strictly to the documentary evidences, and rarely mixing inferences with the recorded facts, he gives to the documentary evidences a juncture and series which make them tell the story of "the memorable ordinance" with a clearness and accuracy not before attained. And, besides, the writer has no set thesis to maintain, beyond and above the recorded facts, as to the greater or less share which Dane or Cutler may have had in its authorship and enactment.

The government of the Northwest Territory passed through an evolutionary process. "The army plan" for settling a new State with officers and soldiers disbanded at the close of the Revolutionary War came first in order, because the needs of an impoverished soldiery were then most clamorous. The fiscal necessities of the Government came next to create what Mr. Barrett entitles "the financiers' plan." A clear perception that all plans for profiting by "the natural secretions of landed wealth" must depend for success on social security and political order, came in the end to pave the way for the ordinance of 1784 as drafted by Jefferson. As the ordinance of 1784 began to be studied in connection with the needs of free labor, and with the dread of State multiplication at the West to the damage and disparagement of the Atlantic States, it was seen by "men of reflection" that the number of States contemplated by that ordinance should be reduced, and that slavery should be restricted in them. These views finally culminated in the ordinance of 1787.

It is because this ordinance was in large part the product of an evolutionary process that its genesis is involved in so much obscurity. It is because the Continental Congress, in caring for the unoccupied West, was obliged to "feel its way blindly along the dark path of implied powers," that the problem was so difficult. The quarrel over the "back lands" began even earlier than Mr. Barrett hints. The question was pronounced from the first to be the article of a standing or falling Union. "Gentlemen shall not pare away Virginia," exclaimed Harrison, only three weeks after the Declaration of Independence. "Until these western lands are cut off, Pennsylvania will not confederate," rejoined Wilson. The munificent cession of Virginia, following the lead of New York, finally gave a solid footing to projects for the government of the northwest territory, and the successive stages of this movement are clearly sketched by Mr. Barrett.

Of most interest to us is the writer's minute discussion of the ordinance of 1784, as originally drafted by Jefferson, and as finally passed. Illustrating his study by maps, he thinks it a mistake to say, as most writers do, that this ordinance, as adopted, provided for the creation of ten States. The mistake, if it be a mistake, is very old, as it was shared by Rufus King in 1787 (Elliott's Debates, vol. v, p. 281.) Mr. Barrett refers to the "amusement" which in later times has been created by the fantastic names given to these Western States in Jefferson's first draft. The amusement dates from the first publication of that draft. The newspaper wags of the time proposed that the States formed by partition from the old States should also be euphemistically named—that Vermont should be called "Epithalamia," Kentucky, "Parthenissiona," and that the Wyoming region, if admitted to the honors of Statehood, should be called "Polupholsboia." The writer marks the first emergence of the words "Charter of Compact," as found in all these early organic acts, but he does not explain their origin and significance. They were made necessary by the fact that the assumption of Congress to legislate under the Articles of Confederation for the government of the Territories was, as Madison and Hamilton confessed at the time, without a shadow of authority, and had to depend for its legal obligation on compact between the contracting parties. Mr. Barrett thinks that the fugitive-slave clause foisted on Rufus King's anti-slavery resolution of March 15, 1785, and finally incorporated in "the Ordinance of Freedom," must have come from some "outside pressure" not now discoverable. He dismisses, with reason, the precedent found for it in the compact of 1643, between Massachusetts, New Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven for the rendition of runaway "servants." That would indeed be "a far cry" when we can find a nearer slogan for it in an agitation which, from 1784 to 1789, prevailed in Georgia for the mutual rendition of slaves between herself and the Spanish possession of Florida. The Continental Congress (John Jay, the Foreign Secretary, being its organ) made itself the ready instrument of these reclamations (Diplomatic Correspondence, etc., 1783-1789, pp. 249-51, 262-3, 376-9, 416). What seemed so "consistent with good neighborhood" (the phrase is Jay's), as between the slave States and a foreign nation, could not have been deemed at that time a hardship as between slave States and free States in the same Union. The apathy of the "fathers" on this subject is unintelligible to-day because of the moral progress which has left the barbarism of slavery so far behind us.

Mr. Barrett forbears to discuss "the political reasons" which induced the Southern members to vote for the ordinance. That they had such reasons is frankly avowed by Grayson of Virginia. Indeed, it would not be difficult to make an argument in support of the proposition that "the planting States" were gainers by the compact. Besides the recapture of fugitive slaves, they gained a reduction in the number of free States that could be carved out of the territory north of the Ohio. The territory west of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia had not yet been ceded, and its future partition into States could be controlled by the acts of cession or by the proprietary States themselves. The attempt made by the commercial States in 1786 to wink at the occlusion of the Mississippi River for twenty-five years, and during that time to prevent the settlement of the Southwest, had been balked. The whole Mississippi Valley was virgin soil for the occupation of "the planting States." Hence the bitter opposition waged by Grayson against the adoption of the Constitution. He based that opposition avowedly on the ground that the Constitution, by its enlarged grants of power, made a new deal as between the Northern and the Southern States in "their contest for empire"—the stakes of that contest being the Mississippi valley. If Grayson had "political reasons," as he said he had, in voting for the ordinance on the 13th of July, 1787, he was true to those reasons when, a few months later, he vehemently opposed the ratification of the Constitution by the Virginia Convention, from motives drawn from the balance of power between the North and the South. If anybody supposes that the ordinance of 1787 was passed in an era of Arcadian politics, he has but to turn to the debates going on at that very moment in the Federal Convention sitting at Philadelphia, with the panic fears expressed by Northern delegates that the Western States might come "by degrees to outvote the Atlantic States," and with the exultant prospect looming before Southern delegates that "the people and strength of America were evidently bearing southwardly and southwestwardly" (Elliott's Debates, vol. v., p. 288 and p. 309).

Very interesting are the detailed references made by Mr. Barrett to the sources from which the several clauses of the ordinance seem to have been derived by its compiler. If, as the result of this inquiry, Nathan Dane comes to his own again, it is not because of any injustice done to Manasseh Cutler. Indeed, something less than full justice is done to Dane's zeal on this subject, for no mention is made of his elaborate discussion of the Western territory question in a speech delivered before the Legislature of Massachusetts in November, 1786. The report of that speech was published at length in the Boston, Hartford, and Philadelphia newspapers of the day, and we fail to find in it any evidence of the "provincialism" ascribed, on what grounds we know not, by Mr. Barrett to Dane.

It is a pity that the proof-reading of this excellent monograph should be so careless. The important resolution of Rufus King for the restriction of slavery is not printed with textual accuracy. The same resolution, as revised by the Committee to whom it was referred, is said to have been reported on the 26th of April instead of the 6th. The names of some of the men who enacted the "ordinance of '87" are cited only to be misspelled. Samuel Holten of Massachusetts masquerades as "Samuel Hal'er," and John Haring of New York as "John Herring," while James Schureman of New Jersey figures alone in the list without any Christian name. There are other inaccuracies.

The Epic of the Inner Life. Translated anew, and accompanied with notes and introductory study, by John F. Genung. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891. Pp. 352.

THIS book is an expansion of an article, "The Interpretation of the Book of Job," which appeared in the *Andover Review* for November, 1888, and was favorably received. Such need was there of such a book—a hearty appreciation of the Old Testament poem, written without academic formalism or scholastic pride, making its appeal to a wide popular intelligence—and the book presented has so many admirable qualities, that it is a very great pity to find it falling short, in some important particulars, of the best results, and aggravating the popular prejudice which it should have helped to correct. It is made up of two parts: "The Introductory Study" and "The Poem." In the former, after certain preliminary observations on the right way of studying the poem, in which there is some natural exaggeration of the futility of all previous attempts, "the central and ruling idea" of Job is brought forward with more show of opposition to former critics than is justified by the amount of difference which is disclosed when at length "the central and ruling idea" is announced as follows: "There is a service of

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God which is not work for reward: it is a heart-loyalty, a hunger after God's presence, which survives loss and chastisement; which, in spite of contradictory seeming, cleaves to what is godlike as the needle seeks the pole, and which reaches up out of the darkness and hardness of this life into light and love beyond." This interpretation is opposed to that of Delitzsch and many other critics—nearly all—for whom the question, "Why does suffering on suffering befall the righteous?" is the sole interest involved. Prof. Genung cannot of course deny that this question is uppermost in the great debate between Job and his friends, but the novelty of his contention is that the answer does not come out in the argument but in the experience of Job, in the development of his spiritual nature under the stress of suffering and sorrow. In Job we have a Teufelsdröckh of the early world fighting his way, like Carlyle's hero, through the everlasting no to the everlasting yea. The comparison is Prof. Genung's, and his several returns to it are as illuminative of his meaning as anything he writes. The promise of this transference of the unity of the poem from a system of thought or reasoning to a person is so pleasing to our ear that it is extremely disappointing to find it broken to our hope. It is so broken; for it is only by what Job says that we get any knowledge of what he is at heart, and there is nothing in his words that gives the sense of spiritual development ascribed to him. Yet Prof. Genung is right in his contention that in the great debate we have more than a mere intellectual argument. However it may be with his friends, Job is a living man, storm-swept by great emotions, and his thinking is for the most part done with his passionate and broken heart. This is the substantial truth that underlies Prof. Genung's exaggeration of the personal centre of the poem.

His classification of the poem as an epic is a matter of no great importance except as it involves his special point of view and the integrity of Job as it has come down to us. It is so different from any typical epic or any typical drama that perhaps we should come nearest the truth by calling it a lyrical dramatic epic. But, so calling it, we should imply the integrity of the poem if we did not make it plain that we only speak of it as it now stands. Prof. Genung is nowhere less satisfactory than in his treatment of this matter of integrity, the connection and continuity of the different parts of the poem. He exaggerates the peculiarity of his position as a defender of the absolute integrity of the book, and especially as the defender of the Elihu part as in agreement with the rest. It is, therefore, all the more strange that, imagining all critical flesh opposed to him, he does so little to beat down its arguments. Certainly no one who ever had a doubt, however faint, of the integrity of the poem, whether in regard to the prologue and epilogue, or the speech of Elihu, or chapter xxxviii., would have his doubt removed by anything offered here. There is a painful suggestion that only the ignorant are addressed, who will not know how weak the statement is. It is, too, a great injustice to represent the doubts as to the integrity of Job as arising from foregone conclusions as to the purpose of the book. Prof. Genung's defence of its integrity has much more the appearance of arising in this way. He might give up Elihu, but, without the prologue and epilogue, his occupation would be gone. If we are not mistaken, a much better case could be made out for a theory of many authors than for the theory of one. As the name of David attracted successive collections of Psalms, and the name of Solomon successive collections of Proverbs, why may not the name of Job have attracted various treatments of the problem of suffering righteousness? There is able scholarship in defence of this teaching. It posits the prologue and epilogue as the original base, makes the debate of Job and his three friends the next instalment, the speeches of Jehovah a third, and that of Elihu the fourth. This may be heroic treatment, but it is delightful in comparison with the evasive shiftiness of those arguments by which the speech of Elihu and the epilogue, especially, are retained as consistent portions of the book.

We cannot follow Prof. Genung into his translation and the commentary he has made upon it. Both of these have many admirable traits. The translation is wonderfully fresh and strong and beautiful. It may be asked, "Why retranslate a book in which the Revised Version made more changes than in any other, and with good effect?" The answer is that "there is a strong tendency in a company translation, made in the interests of the Church and Christianity, to make every clause at all hazards a source of spiritual and homiletical edification." These are hard words, and in melancholy contrast with them is the translation of the most critical passage in the book, "I know that my redeemer liveth." The foot-note says: "*My redeemer*—so it seems best to translate here, rather than disturb the associations of the passage, because not enough would be gained by the more accurate term *avenger* to pay for the change." Thus the author is false to his chosen principle, and his "sermonizing instinct" gets the better of him at the most critical moment. And the translation of the remainder of the passage, with the commentary on it, is the most doubtful feature of the book. The translation, bringing out the expectation of a future life, is equally at variance with the general drift of the poem and the "consensus of the competent" respecting this most difficult passage. Yet on this individual translation and interpretation, at the best extremely uncertain by his own confession, Prof. Genung has based the climax of his exposition. It would be hard to find a worse example of critical artfulness than this. To harmonize such a translation and interpretation with the remainder of the poem is impossible. The attempts to do so are the plainest proofs of this; and the impossible is intensified by the date which Prof. Genung assigns to the book—the eighth century B. C., much earlier than has been lately reckoned. Prof. Toy assigns it, with the body of the Wisdom literature to which it is allied, to the third century before the Christian era. Even then the idea of immortality would have been unlikely, but far less so than five centuries before.

The Criminal Jurisprudence of the Ancient Hebrews. By S. Mendelsohn, LL.D. Baltimore: M. Curlander. 1891. 8vo, pp. 270.

PUTTING aside the preface, index, etc., and the reprint of an essay on the Talmud by the same author, only 180 pages are left for the work named in the title, less than one-third of which is text, the rest footnotes. We know nothing of the practical workings of the criminal law among the Hebrews, except in the shape which it assumed, in the later times of the second commonwealth, in the hands of the Pharisaic Rabbis or Judges (for Rabbi was identical with Judge). Of the Sadducees we know only that they servilely followed the written law in all its blood-curdling severity; but they have left no literature of their own. The Talmud, the outgrowth of Pharisaic learning, refers sometimes to the Sadducean rulings, *e. g.*, to their literal enforcement of "eye for eye, hand for hand," instead of awarding moneyed damages for the loss of the eye or limb. But our author does not mention the Sadducees at all; the jurisprudence he gives us is solely that of the Talmud.

After the destruction of the Temple in 70 A. D., no Jewish tribunal was deemed competent to inflict the death penalty; indeed, jurisdiction in capital cases was wielded but for two short periods of two or three years out of the fifty preceding that event. But aside from the Apocryphal story of Susannah, there is no older written document about Jewish jurisprudence of any kind than the Mishnah, as collected by Rabbi Jehudah at Tiberias during the reign of Elagabalus, say 220 A. D. Until his day, the "oral law" was handed down by word of mouth only; and, notwithstanding the respect paid to tradition and authority, the Rabbis discussed points of criminal law which had become a mere matter of history, with the same freedom as if they were passing as judges upon cases coming before them for trial; and in this way they must have often taught and proclaimed, not how the law had been administered at Jerusalem, but how, in their opinion, it ought to be administered if Jewish independence were restored. And the same process went on during the subsequent discussions of the Rabbis on the Euphrates on the text of the Mishnah, which went on for nearly three hundred years, before they were written down in the Babylonian Talmud. The further away we get from the time when the criminal law had to be enforced in the interest of social order, the more we find of those subtilties which make the lawful punishment of even murderers and thieves, as well as blasphemers and Sabbath-breakers, utterly impossible; and a new rabbinical criminal code, with imprisonment and excommunication for its penalties, had to be constructed and projected into the past, in place of the old-fashioned sentences of death and of stripes of the Mosaic dispensation. Our author, in one of his notes (68), while speaking of the "previous warning" (*Hathraäh*) against the commission of the crime, without proof of which the penalty of death or stripes, according to the Talmud, could not be lawfully imposed, admits that this rule could certainly not have prevailed when the Jewish courts alone had to preserve the peace in Palestine against robbers and cutthroats; but he fails to notice that the refinements which render the enforcement of the law nugatory are carried much further in the Gemara or Talmud than in its foundation, the Mishnah, which, aside from being much older, and therefore better historic authority, is also the work of much more sober-minded men. Our author generally loses sight of this distinction, and, even when he quotes the Mishnah, he refers to it by the page of the Babylonian Talmud in which it is inserted.

But, making allowance for all the refinements or exaggerations of later times, enough remains to convince the searcher after truth that the Pharisaic judges of the Asmonean and Herodian times administered the law against persons accused of crime, in a spirit of fairness and humanity which has never before this nineteenth century been reached by any nation, and even in our own time is confined to the United States and the British Empire. The procedure is always accusatory, never inquisitive, the prisoner is never called

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upon to criminate himself, his confession is never regarded, except in so far as it might, in offences against property, relieve him from a penalty. (But this is probably one of the Talmudical afterthoughts.) No conviction can be had upon the testimony of less than two witnesses — so says the written law; and these witnesses must be free male Israelites over thirteen years of age, of unblemished character. In capital cases the court is composed of twenty-three, in other criminal cases of three "expert" judges, who are drawn from the "disciples of the learned." Any "disciple" in the court-room may argue a point in favor of the accused (Mishnah Sanhedrim, ch. v, §4—a passage which the author seems to have overlooked when he says that advocates were not allowed to confuse the court). But none of the "disciples" were allowed to argue against the prisoner; this only the judges could do, after withdrawing for consultation. After an acquittal there could be no new trial, even upon the discovery of new evidence, though there might be after a conviction. The witnesses were in all cases confronted with the defendant; they were separated; they were closely cross-examined, first by set questions as to time and place (*Hakirah*), then at large in our English-American style (*Bedikah*); and in very early times a thorough cross-examination, in the interest of a wrongfully accused person, was made the most sacred duty of the judge.

Men were disqualified for seats on the bench if of kin to the accused or to the prosecuting witnesses; also (Sanh., ch. iii, §3) "dicers [professional gamblers], usurers, *pigeon fanciers* [our author omits these], and traders in fruits of the seventh year"; also, like jurors under the common law, for "ease and favor." Altogether, there were few, very few executions; no mutilations; no torture; no confiscation. The penalties of stoning or burning were inflicted so as to save the very letter of the law, but so as to render death almost instantaneous and painless. For here the Pharisees applied the Golden Rule, which they deduced from "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself," while the Sadducees burned or stoned their victims with a cruel thoroughness worthy of Torquemada. While our author fails to compare the mildness and humanity of the Talmudic law with the ferocity of the Sadducees, he draws many parallels between the system described by him and the laws of Greece, of Rome, and of England. For Greece and Rome he relies mainly on Smith's Dictionary, on W. W. Fiske, and on Gibbon; for English law on Blackstone and on Roscoe's 'Criminal Evidence'; but he tells us in his preface that he has consulted none of the many German works on the branch of Rabbinic lore treated by him, because he wished to draw at first hand from the original sources. It has been said, however, that he has made free use of a work on the subject by Dr. Fassel, published at Vienna, a charge which we have not the means to verify. He nowhere mentions John Selden, whose 'Synedria Veterum Hebræorum' teaches all that is worth knowing on Talmudic jurisprudence with remarkable thoroughness and accuracy. If he has really, at first hand and without assistance from his predecessors, gathered all his extracts from the Babylonian and the Jerusalem Talmud, the Commentaries (*Mechilta*, *Sifra*, etc.), and the codification of Maimonides (*Yad hahazakah*), he has performed an amount of work quite disproportionate to the result.

We consider the author's want of discrimination between the Mishnah and the later documents a serious mistake. Another blemish in the eyes of many readers, though a recommendation with some of his Jewish friends, is the continual tone of praise which pervades his book: as the common law is to Blackstone the perfection of human reason, so Talmudic criminal law is to our author the perfection of justice and mercy. But the author's unidiomatic English and unfortunate choice of modern law terms also detract from the merits of the work. And for the crisp style of the Talmudic law maxims he has no taste—at least he has not the pluck to reproduce it. The law of self-defence, which, literally rendered, reads, "He who comes to kill thee, get up early to kill him," he tamely travesties thus: "Kill the one attempting unlawfully to kill thee"! We recommend the book as likely, in these days of anti-Semitism, to dispel many unjust prejudices.

War. By Col. F. Maurice, R.A., Professor of Military Art and History in the Royal Staff College. Macmillan & Co. 8vo, pp. 155.

THIS reprint in book form of Col. Maurice's excellent article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' would be useful and timely in any event; but the addition of an essay on military literature and a list of books with brief comment makes it an indispensable handbook for the military student. The author's summary of the changes in the conditions of strategy and tactics made by repeating weapons of precision and long range, is as authoritative as we are likely to have till the next great and dreaded collision of European armies shall change theory into science and conjecture into knowledge.

The essay on military literature is full of the soundest suggestions as to what and how to read, and gives a wise analysis of the reasons for the supreme value of military history in the soldier's education. Col. Maurice finds the military lessons of our civil war more useful to the European student than some other contemporary writers have seemed willing to admit, and in the campaigns of the German Army since 1865 he finds proof that the German officers have not neglected the study of our history. He sees more clearly than some others have done that the changes in tactical offence and defence, in strategic combinations as affected by railroads and telegraphs, and especially in the moving and subsistence of armies in the field, were all either worked out or clearly foreshadowed in the American campaigns from 1861 to 1865.

Famous Golf Links. By Horace G. Hutchinson and Others. Longmans, Green & Co.

THIS is a delightful book for the elect—that is, for golfers—but we fear it will be caviare to the general. Excluding the links at Quebec and Montreal, which are herein described, Rockaway is the only place on this side of the Atlantic where the enthusiastic golfer (all golfers are enthusiasts) can indulge in his favorite game. That such a condition of things should exist in this nineteenth century is, perhaps, due to the McKinley Bill or the fear of unlimited silver coinage; but, in any case, it is discreditable to American sportsmen. For golf is one of the very best games that the mind of man has devised. One might say of it as the Bishop in the story said of the strawberry: "Doubtless the Lord might have created a better game, but doubtless he never did." It has been played in Scotland for centuries, but became popular in England only of late years—probably because Englishmen still look with suspicion upon anything that emanates from "gentlemen of the Caledonian persuasion." But no sooner was this prejudice overcome than the whole population, young and old, male and female, took violently to golf, with the result that in England to-day golf-links are as plentiful as blackberries, and the quondam supremacy of cricket and lawn tennis is seriously threatened. In these days, when we carefully imitate so many English customs more honored in the breach than the observance, it is to be regretted that we do not take up golf as we have taken up polo. Of the two games, considered as such, golf has the immense advantage of being within reach of all, whereas polo is for the few who can afford to keep ponies. And then there is a soothing satisfaction that follows a good afternoon's golfing which is rarely attained by any other process. At such times a man feels at peace with himself and all mankind, and comes near to realizing that halcyon period spoken of by the jester—

> "When the Rudyards cease from Kipling
> And the Haggards ride no more."

Shakespeare vom Standpunkte der vergleichenden Litteraturgeschichte. Von Dr. W. Wetz. Erster Band: Die Menschen in Shakespeare's Dramen. Worms: P. Reiss.

THE title of this work, so far at least as the first volume is concerned, is somewhat misleading. The author gives us next to nothing of "Shakspere from the standpoint of comparative literary history," but instead of that several hundred pages of psychological observations upon Shakspere's characters. The ultimate object of his treatise, he tells us, is to develop the laws of Shaksperian tragedy, and to show how that differs from the tragedy of other modern poets. His method is to be that of "comparative literary history"—something new in Germany, he assures us. He argues for the possibility of a comparative method, quite different from anything hitherto exemplified, that shall rise to the dignity of an exact science. A somewhat prolix introduction attempts to set forth the *modus operandi* of this new method; but one reads it all the way with the mental comment *déjà connu*, and wonders what all the fuss is about. Dr. Wetz informs us that he follows in the footsteps of Taine, and has no predecessors among German writers, for Brandes, being a Dane, does not count. With respect to this manifesto, however, an honest critic owes it to the public to call attention to one important difference between Dr. Wetz and his famous models: Taine and Brandes are never dull.

The bulk of the volume is made up, as already remarked, of comments upon Shakspere's characters; comments that are occasionally suggestive of real critical power, but are on the whole disappointing on account of the absence of the very thing that is promised, namely, historical criticism. The discussion proceeds tamely, with an infinite deal of quotation, and very much as if the plays had fallen from the sky ready made.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, E. L. The Universality of Man's Appearance and Primitive Man. Edinburgh: David Douglas; Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 25 cents.
Aristotle. Constitution of Athens. Translated by E. Poste. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Bikelas, Demetrios. Seven Essays on Christian Greece. London: Alexander Gardner.
Böhm-Bawerk, Prof. E. V. The Positive Theory of Capital. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Cheyne, Prof. T. K. The Origin and Religious Contents of the Psalter. Thomas Whittaker. $4.
Codrington, Rev. R. H. The Melanesians: Studies in their Anthropology and Folk-lore. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. $4.
Cyr, Mrs. E. M. The Children's Primer. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Daudet, A. Trois Contes Choisis. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 15 cents.
Euripides. Iphigeneia at Aulis. Edited by E. B. England. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.

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